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ABSTRACT

Compiled as part of a 4-volume comprehensive report of a Florida project designed to understand the rural poor and their information-seeking and information-utilization behavior patterns, Volume II served as a background document, describing the sample and providing basic information about the respondents. The sample population consisted of 840 low income respondents, approximately 66% black and 33% white, with almost 66% being females and slightly over 33% being males. Overall, this low income sample exhibited strongly positive attitudes towards other people, education, and religion, and felt that marriage and family were important influences in their lives. The median number of school grades completed for the sample was 6.04 years. The respondents were considered to be more politically than socially participative, with blacks being more involved than whites. A high level of motivation to work and desire to do a good job was indicated. Authoritarianism and alienation were characteristic of the sample. A sense of community solidarity was generally lacking. Blacks were seen as holding significantly higher present and future levels of aspiration, while whites had significantly higher past aspirations. (JD)

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INFORMATION CONSUMPTION BY LOW INCOME FAMILIES TO REDUCE THE IMPACT OF RURAL POVERTY

VOLUME II

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RURAL POOR

Jogindar S. Dhillon

April 1978

CENTER FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND RESEARCH
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J. S. Dhillon
Principal Investigator

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter includes information which will orient the reader to this report, the second volume of a four-volume report on "Information Consumption by Low Income Families to Reduce Rural Poverty in Florida." This chapter includes an overview of the project, its methodology, and a brief explanatory statement regarding the organization of this report.

Project Background

An individual's operant behavior is strongly influenced by information received in the past, as well as in the present, from the immediate environment. The informational sufficiency or deficiency of that environment significantly affects each individual's knowledge, attitudes, and skills--the three basic ingredients of human behavior. These ingredients can be improved by increasing the informational content of the environment and by making it available to the individual in a comprehensive and relevant form. This, in turn, would produce changes in the individual's information-seeking and information-consuming behavioral patterns.

Deficiency of functional information in the environment of the rural poor in the U.S. does not require any documentation. Relative isolation--geographical, social, and political--has led to this information deficiency. As in a vicious circle, this deficiency has negatively affected the information-seeking behavior of the rural poor, thus contributing to their low levels of knowledge, less favorable attitudes, and less functional skills.

There is, therefore, a great need to gain understanding of the behavior of the rural poor in their information-seeking and information-utilization patterns. Empirical evidence is needed to answer questions such as: To what extent can information consumption by the rural poor reduce the impact of poverty? What types of information are used most effectively by the rural poor? What are some of the personal variables of the rural poor which are positively associated with information consumption? What effect does the informational setting have on the consumption of information by the rural poor?

In an effort to answer some of these questions, this project was designed and implemented in 1973-75 in seven counties of North and Northwest Florida.

Methodology

Since this particular volume describes only the characteristics of the poor, details of experimental design and development of information packages are not given in this report. They will be presented in Volume IV which deals with experimental effects. In this section an overview of methodological procedures used in this study are given as follows: (1) experimental design; (2) development of research instruments; (3) sample selection; (4) selection and training of research investigators; (5) coding and data analysis; and (6) follow-up study.

Experimental Design

The experimental method utilizing the basic pretest-posttest procedure was chosen for this study. In each of the counties selected, two of the three communities within the county were assigned as treatment groups, and the third community was a control group. The three groups (i.e., communities) were randomly assigned and divided as follows:

Group I ("face-to-face" community).

Information packages were delivered to families, and each publication in the package was explained by the research investigator; the research investigator made at least two follow-up visits to try to motivate the families to use information contained in the package.

Group II ("publications only" community).

Information packages were delivered to families, and the research investigator told the families to read the publications or, in case they could not read, to get someone else to read the publications to them.

Group III ("control" community).

No information was delivered to the families.

Respondents in each of the three groups in each community were administered a bench mark survey, three pretests, and three posttests. The pretest and posttest pertained to the programs in the three information packages given to the two treatment groups in each community.

Sample Selection

The sample selection process consisted of three basic steps-selection of counties, selection of communities, and selection of families.

The 22-county sampling frame and the seven counties ultimately selected in northwest Florida for this study are shown in Figure 1. Starting from the extreme western part of the state, the sampling frame was divided into seven blocks, six of the blocks containing three counties each and one block containing four counties. To maximize external generalizability of the findings based on the incidence of rural poverty, one county with the highest incidence of poverty was selected from each of the seven blocks. The following seven counties thus became the target counties for the study: Franklin, Gadsden, Hamilton, Jackson, Jefferson, Okaloosa, and Washington.

Three more or less structurally similar communities in each county were then identified based on factors such as size, distance from major cities, and general similarity on socioeconomic dimensions. Twenty-one rural communities were thus selected.

The final stage in the process was the identification of target families. Forty families were randomly selected from each community (i.e., a total of 840 families) in an attempt to achieve parity in the sample composition of the three communities within each county. In particular, attention was given to ensuring adequate representation from the denser and less densely populated sections of each community. Factors such as race, farm/nonfarm family orientation, location (open country or village), and willingness to participate in the program determined the final selection of the families. In addition, the criteria of poverty as enunciated by the Social Security Administration, Washington, D.C., were used in designing a brief preliminary questionnaire to screen the poor from the nonpoor families. These criteria consider such factors as size of family, family background (agricultural or nonagricultural), and head of household (male or female).

Detailed county maps, showing not only the road system in the county but also the location of houses

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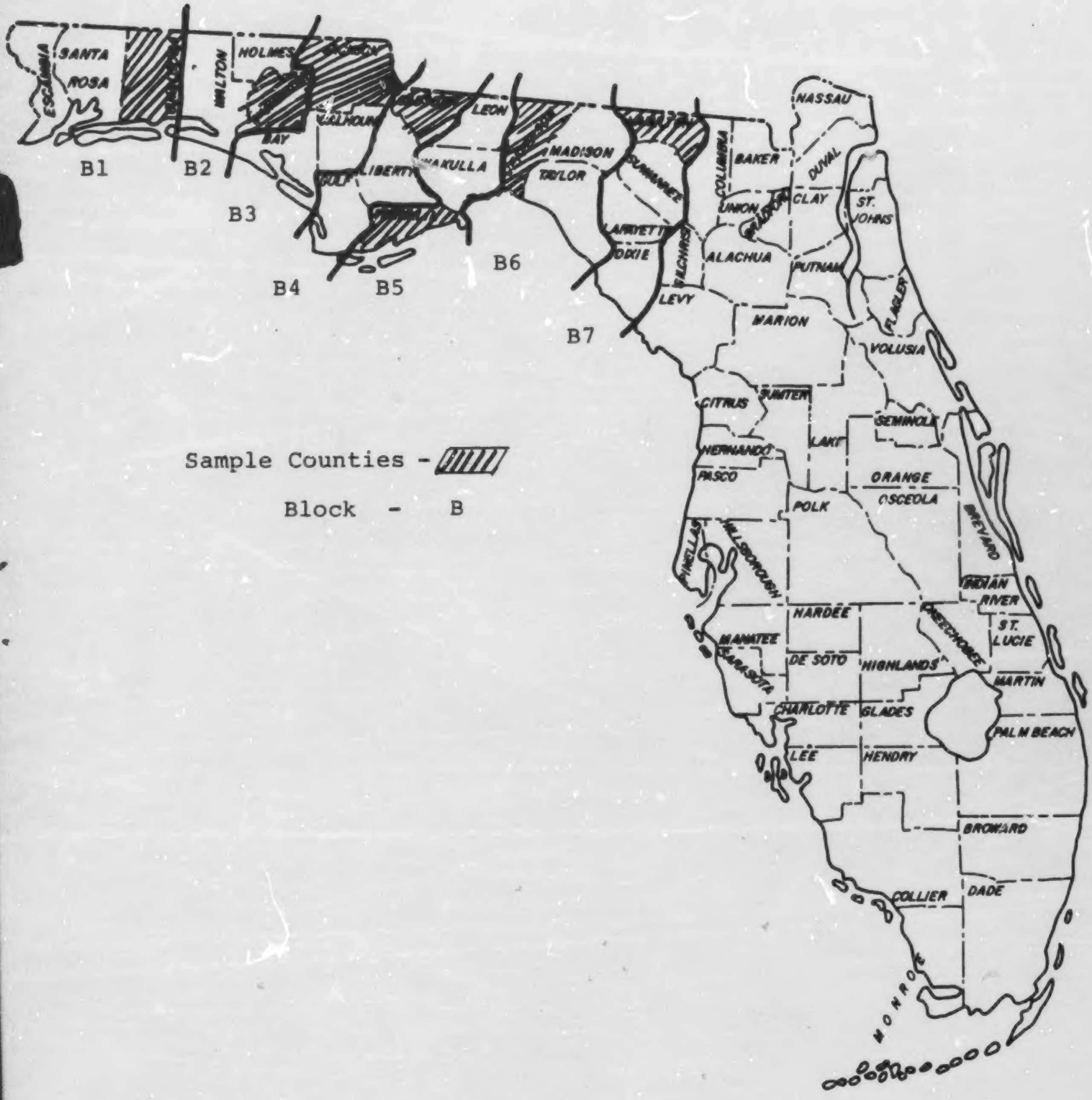

Figure I

Counties in the Sampling Frame and the Sample in the less densely populated areas, guided the selection process.

Using these sampling procedures as outlined, the final sample consisted of the following:

Number of counties = 7
Number of communities = 21
Number of families = 840

Development of Research Instruments

All the relevant federal and state agencies sponsoring meaningful programs from the point of view of rural low income families were identified, and information about these programs (including publications, if any) was obtained from each agency. After abstracting the information, three information packages were developed. Analyses of the reading difficulty level of agency publications were made, and revised publications with a low difficulty level were developed in cases where the original publications were considered unsuitable in reading level for the target population. In addition, in cases where no agency publications were available on programs, new publications were developed at an appropriate reading level. All of the publications finally selected and/or developed were placed in pocket folders for delivery to the respondents in the treatment groups.

A bench mark survey was designed for the purpose of securing data about the respondents in the following areas: demographic and background; behavioral; attitudinal; psychological; and aspiration levels. Included within this bench mark survey was the first pretest--the pretest on the first information package--administered to all respondents. Instruments were also designed to be administered to all respondents for the posttest on the first information package, pretests and posttest for the second and third information packages.

A record sheet for follow-up visits about the information packages delivered to Group I ("face-to-face" community) respondents was designed for use by the research investigators in keeping track of what the respondents did with their packages, what they planned to do with them, and levels of interest and understanding regarding the programs included in the packages. These record sheets were completed by the research investigators at each follow-up interview with a respondent in Group I.

Finally, research instruments in the form of a battery of tests were utilized to identify any psycho-attitudinal changes in the research investigators during the course of the study. The battery of tests was administered to all investigators at the beginning and at the end of the year-long field work.

Selection and Training of Research Investigators

A total of eight research investigators were employed to carry out the field work. Six of these investigators were professionals, and two were paraprofessionals.

For all the field staff, a rural background was one of the essential qualifications. In addition, professional investigators were required to have at least a bachelor's degree, and each paraprofessional was required to have at least a high school education.

The entire investigative staff participated in a week-long preservice training program prior to conducting any field work. Throughout the project period, then, one-day training sessions were held for the investigators just prior to their delivering the next information packages to respondents.

Coding and Data Analyses

All the research instruments were predominantly precoded. Electronic scanning sheets were used to transfer the data from all instruments except the bench mark survey, in which case regular coding sheets were used.

Appropriate statistical methods were selected and used for the various types of data gathered. Frequency and percentage distributions, for example, were used in analyzing much of the descriptive information about the respondents. A variety of statistical tests and techniques were employed for other kinds of analyses.

Organization of the Report

As stated earlier, this document is the second of a four-volume comprehensive report on "Information Consumption by Low Income Families to Reduce Rural Poverty in Florida."

Volume I	Research Insturments
Volume II	Description of the Sample: Characteristics of the Rural Poor

Volume III	Level of Knowledge of Anti-Poverty Programs by the Low Income Families: Perceived Need and Use of Such Programs
Volume IV	Analysis of Experimental Treatments

This second volume is intended to serve as a background document by describing the sample and providing basic information about the respondents. As such, it is organized into sections pertaining to categories of variables under study. These chapters are as follows:

Chapter II.	Demographic and Background Characteristics
Chapter III.	Behavioral Characteristics
Chapter IV.	Characteristic Attitudes and Values
Chapter V.	Socio-Psychological Characteristics
Chapter VI.	Aspiration Levels

Frequency and percentage distributions are presented as tables throughout this report.

CHAPTER II

DEMOGRAPHIC AND BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

This chapter includes demographic data which describe characteristics of the sample in terms of race, sex, age, marital status, and family size. Additionally, descriptive information about the respondents is presented regarding the educational level (last school grade completed), annual family income, employment status, family work (farming or nonfarming), residential continuity in a community, general health conditions, car ownership, and living facilities.

Demographic Variables

Race, Sex, and Age

The sample population consisted of 840 respondents, approximately two-thirds black and one-third white. One individual in the sample was of Spanish descent and was excluded from all race breakdowns in this study. The proportions by race were almost identically matched by the sex proportions in the sample. Females comprised almost two-thirds of the respondents and males slightly over one-third. The distribution by race and sex was as follows:

Race			Sex		
Black	66.4%	(558)	Female	64.3%	(540)
White	33.5%	(281)	Male	35.7%	(300)
Other	.1%	(1)			

As Table 1 shows, within the white group the population was distributed nearly equally by sex (48.8% male, 51.2% female) but showed a high proportion of females (70.9%) to males (29.1%) in the black population.

Table 1 also reflects that the total sample was almost equally distributed by thirds within the following age groups: from under 30 through 45 years (35.0%); 46 through 65 years (34.3%); and over 65 years (30.4%). Among the white respondents, there was a slightly higher percentage in the oldest age group (35.2%) as compared

Table 1

Distribution of Respondents by Sex, Age Groups , and Race
(Percentages)

Age Group	Total Sample	Black Male	Black Female	Black Total	White Male	White Female	White Total
Under 30	13.2 (110)	20.8 (16)	79.2 (61)	13.9 (77)	27.3 (9)	72.7 (24)	11.7 (33)
31-45	21.8 (181)	18.4 (23)	81.6 (102)	22.6 (125)	44.6 (25)	55.4 (31)	19.9 (56)
46-65	34.3 (288)	29.7 (58)	70.3 (137)	35.3 (195)	52.7 (49)	47.3 (44)	33.1 (93)
Over 65	30.4 (255)	41.0 (64)	59.0 (92)	28.2 (156)	54.5 (54)	45.5 (45)	35.2 (99)
Total	99.7 (834)	29.1 (161)	70.9 (392)	100.0 (553)	48.8 (137)	51.2 (144)	100.0 (281)

N's in parentheses.

to the black respondents (28.2%). In the other age categories, however, the distribution by race was not distinctive except for a pattern of slightly higher percentages in the lower age groups among the black respondents. The median age of respondents was 53.92 years.

The distribution by sex and age (Table 1) was marked by a heavier concentration of females than males in the youngest age category (under 30) in both racial groups (79.2% black females and 72.7% white females). Further, the predominance of black females over black males was repeated in the next two age categories (31-45 and 46-65) but was not matched in the white population where sex distribution became more nearly equal. In the oldest age group (over 65), there was an under-representation of females in both racial groups when compared to the sexual distribution of the total sample.

The race, sex, and age variables indicated a high representation of young black females as heads of households in this rural, low income population.

Marital Status

Of the five marital statuses identified (Table 2), more than half the total respondents reported being married (52.8%), and slightly over one-fourth reported being widowed (27.5%). These two categories accounted for 80.3% of the total sample.

Some differences were noted between the races regarding marital status. For instance, of the white respondents almost two-thirds (63.1%) were married, while slightly less than half (47.6%) of the black respondents reported that they were married. Further, although the total numbers of respondents in both categories were low, there was a higher representation of unmarried blacks than whites (10.1% to 3.9%) and of divorced/separated blacks (13.8%) as compared to the white group (7.5%). The proportions of those widowed were similar between the races.

Table 2

Marital Status According to Race
(Percentages)

Marital Status	Black	White	Total
Married	47.6 (265)	63.1 (176)	52.8 (441)
Unmarried	10.1 (56)	3.9 (11)	8.0 (67)
Divorced/Separated	13.8 (77)	7.5 (21)	11.7 (98)
Widowed	28.5 (159)	25.4 (71)	27.5 (230)
Total	66.6 (557)	33.4 (279)	100.0 (836)

_N_'s in parentheses.

The lower percentages of white respondents in the unmarried and divorced/separated categories may have been a reflection of the nearly equal distribution of the sexes in the white portion of the sample. Conversely, the higher percentages of blacks in the same categories may have reflected the heavier concentration of young females in the black sample.

Considerable stability was evidenced (Table 3) in whichever marital status was indicated by respondents.

The proportion of the total sample who reported having been in their present marital status (i.e., married, divorced, separated, or widowed) for more than 20 years was 39.8%. An additional one-fourth of the respondents (24.4%) reported the duration of their present marital status as between 11 and 20 years. These proportions were almost identical when comparing blacks and whites.

Table 3

Number of Years in Current Marital Status
According to Race (Percentages)

Years in Marital Status	Black	White	Total
Under 5	18.5 (90)	20.2 (54)	19.1 (144)
5-10	15.6 (76)	18.4 (49)	16.6 (125)
10-20	25.7 (125)	22.1 (59)	24.4 (184)
Over 20	40.1 (195)	39.3 (105)	39.8 (300)
Total	64.5 (486)	35.5 (267)	100.0 (753)

N's in parentheses.

Family Size

Although the distribution of family sizes for the total sample was fairly even, there were some differences noted between the races.

Table 4 reveals that there was a somewhat heavier concentration of smaller family sizes (i.e., numbering one or two members) among the whites than among the blacks. The distribution also shows that 86.6% of those reporting seven or more family members living together were black. This represents one-fourth (25.5%) of the black portion of the sample--more than any other category of black family size.

Table 4

Number of Family Members Living Together According to Race (Percentages)

Number of Members	Black	White	Total
1	17.4 (97)	21.7 (61)	18.9 (158)
2	19.0 (106)	30.2 (85)	22.8 (191)
3-4	21.9 (122)	23.1 (65)	22.3 (187)
5-6	16.2 (90)	17.1 (48)	16.5 (138)
7 and over	25.5 (142)	7.8 (22)	19.6 (164)
Total	66.5 (557)	33.5 (281)	100.0 (838)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Education

A comparison of education levels (i.e., last school grade completed) by race and sex (Table 5) shows that there was a fairly even distribution in the three educational categories (0-4, 5-8, and 9 or more) among the black respondents, with slightly less representation in the highest group. Whites were not as evenly proportioned as blacks by these categories, with most respondents in the middle group (5-8) and considerably less in the highest group (9 or more school grades completed).

Comparing the races, there was a higher proportion of whites than blacks in the middle educational level, but surprisingly, there was a lower percentage of white respondents (23.6%) than black respondents (26.9%) in the highest educational level. On the other hand, there were slightly more black than white respondents who fell in the lowest educational group (36.5% as compared to 32.1%).

Regarding the variable of sex, Table 5 shows that females, in general, had completed more years of schooling than males. Approximately one-half of each male group (51.9% black, 47.1% white) was in the lowest educational

Table 5

Percentages of Males and Females by Educational Level (Last School Grade Completed) and Race

Last Grade Completed	Black			White		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0-4	51.9 (82)	30.4 (119)	36.5 (201)	47.1 (64)	18.1 (26)	32.1 (90)
5-8	30.4 (48)	39.0 (153)	36.5 (201)	30.9 (42)	56.9 (82)	44.3 (124)
9 and over	17.7 (28)	30.6 (120)	26.9 (148)	22.0 (30)	25.0 (36)	23.6 (66)
Total	28.7 (158)	71.3 (392)	100.0 (550)	48.6 (136)	51.4 (144)	100.0 (280)

N's in parentheses.

level. The black females, however, were almost evenly distributed in all educational levels, and the white females were more heavily represented in the middle level than any other.

Viewing these data from a different perspective--by educational level--it can be seen that, among the blacks, females comprised 76.1% of those in the middle educational group (5-8) and 81.1% of those in the higher group (9 and over). Among the whites, females also outweighed males in these educational groups, but with less distinctive differences. Thus, there was a clear pattern of higher educational levels among the females of both races in this rural low income population, with a more pronounced tendency toward this pattern among the blacks.

The age distribution in relation to race and education displayed in Table 6 shows decreasing educational attainment with increasing age in both racial groups. This decline appears less sharp among the white respondents than among the blacks. Only 5.3% of the blacks 65 years and older completed nine or more school grades as compared to 17.3% of the whites in this age and educational category. In addition, 63.6% of the oldest blacks reported the lowest educational level, while 40.8% of the oldest whites reported this category.

It should be noted that the percentage of blacks in the youngest age group who had completed nine or more school grades (61.0%) was nearly twice that of the white population in this age group, although the representation

Table 6

Percentages in Each Age Group by Educational Level (Last School Grade Completed) and Race

Last Grade Completed	Black				White			
	Under 30	31-45	46-65	Over 65	Under 30	31-45	46-65	Over 65
0-4	5.2 (4)	8.9 (11)	45.9 (89)	63.6 (96)	3.0 (1)	19.6 (11)	40.9 (38)	40.8 (40)
5-8	33.8 (26)	42.3 (52)	38.1 (74)	31.1 (47)	60.6 (20)	42.9 (24)	41.9 (39)	41.8 (41)
9 and over	61.0 (47)	48.8 (60)	16.0 (31)	5.3 (8)	36.4 (12)	37.5 (21)	17.2 (16)	17.3 (17)
Total	14.1 (77)	22.6 (123)	35.6 (194)	27.7 (151)	11.8 (33)	20.0 (56)	33.2 (93)	35.0 (98)

N's in parentheses.

in this age category was very similar for both racial groups. In addition, 48.8% of the blacks in the 31-45 age group reported attaining the highest educational level, while 37.5% of the whites in the same age category reported this level.

The median number of school grades completed for the total sample was 6.04 years.

Annual Family Income

Two categories were established for the comparison of annual family incomes: (1) less than $3,999; and (2) $4,000 and over. For this poverty level population, $2,401.75 was the median yearly income reported. The relatively small portion of the sample engaged in farming activities reported a slightly higher median annual income ($2,901.35) than the much larger nonfarming group ($2,340.61).

Family income for whites engaged in farming activities (Table 7) was decidedly patterned in the lower income level (less than $3,999). Approximately two-thirds (66.7%) of the agriculturally oriented whites were in the lower income level, and slightly over one-half (51.9%) of the black farm group were in this level. Similarly, the nonagriculturally oriented portion of the sample (Table 8) earned the lower income, but the racial representation at this lower level was more nearly equal (62.3% of the blacks and 68.9% of the whites). From these data, it appears that the black farmer was better

Table 7

Yearly Family Income According to Race
(Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents)

	Percent		
Income	Black	White	Total
Less than $3,999	51.9 (41)	66.7 (8)	53.8 (49)
$4,000 and over	48.1 (38)	33.3 (4)	46.2 (42)
Total	86.8 (79)	13.2 (12)	100.0 (91)

N's in parentheses.

Table 8

Yearly Family Income According to Race (Nonagriculturally-Oriented Respondents)

Income	Percent Black	 White	 Total
Less than $3,999	62.3 (326)	68.9 (188)	64.6 (514)
$4,000 and over	37.7 (197)	31.1 (85)	35.4 (282)
Total	65.8 (523)	34.2 (273)	100.0 (796)

N's in parentheses.

off than either the white farmer or the nonfarmers and that the white nonfarmer earned the least annual income.

Table 9 reflects the portion of income from farming for the agriculturally oriented respondents and shows that 37.8% of these respondents earned "almost all" their

Table 9

Portion of Income Earned from Farming According to Race (Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents)[1]

Portion of Income	Percent Black	 White	 Total
Almost all	36.1 (26)	50.0 (5)	37.8 (31)
Most	9.7 (7)	10.0 (1)	9.8 (8)
About half	15.3 (11)	10.0 (1)	14.6 (12)
Less than half	19.4 (14)	10.0 (1)	18.3 (15)
Very small part	19.4 (14)	20.0 (2)	19.5 (16)
Total	87.8 (72)	12.2 (10)	100.0 (82)

N's in parentheses.

[1] Seven black and two white respondents reported no income from farming.

income from farming. One-half of the white farmers and slightly over one-third of the black farmers reported that they earned "almost all" of their income from agricultural activities. It should be noted that approximately one-fifth of both the black and white farmers reported earning a "very small part" of their annual income from agricultural activities.

For purposes of comparing levels of income and education, the division into nonagriculturally oriented and agriculturally oriented respondents was used. For both groups it can be noted that as education increases, income also increases. Table 10 contains data regarding the agriculturally oriented population and shows that the rate of increase was somewhat higher for the whites than for the blacks. Of the one-fourth of the white farmers who had completed the ninth grade or more, 66.7% reported the higher income category. Of the black farmers, 30.8% reported this same educational category, and only 62.5% of this number were in the highest income category. More black than white farmers with 5-8 grades education reported the higher income level (47.8% as compared to 33.3%). Additionally, in the lowest educational level 38.7% of the black respondents earned the higher level of income while none of the whites reported this category of income.

Table 10

Yearly Family Income According to Educational Level (Last School Grade Completed) and Race (Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents) (Percentages)

Grade Completed	Black		White	
	Less than $3,999	$4,000 and over	Less than $3,999	$4,000 and over
0-4	61.3 (19)	38.7 (12)	100.0 (3)	...
5-8	52.2 (12)	47.8 (11)	66.7 (4)	33.3 (2)
9 and over	37.5 (9)	62.5 (15)	33.3 (1)	66.7 (2)
Total	51.3 (40)	48.7 (38)	66.7 (8)	33.3 (4)

_N_'s in parentheses.

In the nonagriculturally oriented population (Table 11), there was a higher percentage of blacks than whites reporting nine or more school grades completed who also reported a higher level of income (58.2% compared to 44.3%). In the other two educational levels (0-4 and 5-8 school grades completed) the nonfarmers reported approximately the same earning power.

Table 11

Yearly Family Income According to Educational Level (Last School Grade Completed) and Race (Nonagriculturally-Oriented Respondents) (Percentages)

Grade Completed	Black		White	
	Less than $3,999	$4,000 and over	Less than $3,999	$4,000 and over
0-4	81.8 (135)	18.2 (30)	80.5 (70)	19.5 (17)
5-8	64.7 (110)	35.3 (60)	68.7 (79)	31.3 (36)
9 and over	41.8 (51)	58.2 (71)	55.7 (34)	44.3 (27)
Total	64.8 (296)	35.2 (161)	69.6 (183)	30.4 (80)

N's in parentheses.

Thus, it would appear that the achievement of higher educational levels is conducive to the attainment of slightly higher income levels for both races. Also, among the largest portion of the sample (i.e., the nonfarmers), a slightly larger percentage of the black respondents compared to whites were able to achieve higher levels of income.

Considering the relationship between age and income, it is evident in Table 12 that income declines as age increases in this rural low income population. A comparison between the two racial groups shows a nearly even distribution of the two levels of income: 62.7% of the blacks and 69.0% of the whites were in the lower income group; 37.3% of the blacks and 31.0% of the whites were in the higher income group. For both blacks and whites, approximately 90% of the oldest age group was in the lower income level. Although this was reversed in the two younger age categories, the difference was less dramatic in the younger black groups. Therefore, it appears that while everyone in the sample was poor, the older respondents were poorer than anyone, and the younger blacks were poorer than the younger whites.

Table 12

Yearly Family Income According to Age Groups and Race (Percentages

	Black		White	
Age Groups	Less than $3,999	$4,000 and over	Less than $3,999	$4,000 and over
Under 30	47.9 (35)	52.1 (38)	37.5 (12)	62.5 (20)
31-45	37.3 (44)	62.7 (74)	30.9 (17)	69.1 (38)
46-65	63.4 (118)	36.6 (68)	78.0 (71)	22.0 (20)
Over 65	89.3 (133)	10.7 (16)	92.7 (89)	7.3 (7)
Total	62.7 (330)	37.3 (196)	69.0 (189)	31.0 (65)

N's in parentheses.

Employment

Employment status was examined in terms of race, education, and age. In addition, data were gathered on job stability, number of jobs held in the past three years, hours worked per day, days worked per week, hourly wage rates, and employment of spouses.

Of the total sample, 69.9% reported they were not working, and the remaining percentage was evenly divided between those working full-time (15.1%) and those working part-time (15.0%). Table 13 reveals that there was a higher percentage of the black population reporting employment than the white (34.5% to 21.5%), and that the unemployment rates were high in both groups (65.6% black and 78.5% white).

Table 13 also shows that 40.7% of the unemployed blacks had the lowest level of education and represented the most numerous group among all black respondents. On the other hand, 45.7% of the unemployed whites fell in the middle educational category (5-8 school grades completed) and represented the most numerous group among all whites.

It should be noted that this was the most populous educational group among the white respondents (see Table 5) and, thus, a high representation at this educational level might be expected in terms of other variables. The lowest level of unemployment for both races was in the higher educational category (23.9% black and 20.5% white).

Table 13

Employment Status According to Race and Educational Level (Percentages)

Last Grade Completed	Black			White		
	Full-time	Part-time	Not Working	Full-time	Part-time	Not Working
0-4	18.7 (17)	36.5 (35)	40.7 (145)	21.2 (7)	33.3 (9)	33.8 (74)
5-8	44.0 (40)	33.3 (32)	35.4 (126)	39.4 (13)	37.0 (10)	45.7 (100)
9 and over	37.4 (34)	30.2 (29)	23.9 (85)	39.4 (13)	29.6 (8)	20.5 (45)
Total	16.8 (91)	17.7 (96)	65.6 (356)	11.8 (33)	9.7 (27)	78.5 (219)

N's in parentheses.

A comparison of the races within the higher educational category, however, reveals that of the 148 blacks 57.4% were unemployed, whereas of the 66 whites 68.2% were unemployed. This indicates a somewhat higher level of unemployment for the white population in the higher educational level than for the blacks.

Table 14 shows a relationship between unemployment and increasing age. Of the unemployed blacks, 38.3% were in the oldest age group, and of the unemployed whites, 42.3% were in the same age category. By comparison, 13.6% of the unemployed blacks were under 30 years of age, and 10.5% of the unemployed whites were in this youngest age group.

With respect to employment, increasing age apparently was a more inhibiting factor among the white than the black respondents, with only 6.1% employed (full-time and part-time) in the oldest age group. The corresponding proportion for the oldest blacks was 10.4%. Differences between the races regarding employment were even more notable in the 46-65 age group, with only 18.3% of the whites in this age group employed, but with 43.7% of the same age blacks employed. Employment in the younger age groups was similar when comparing the races.

Table 14

Employment Status According to Age Groups and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black Full-time	Black Part-time	Black Not Working	White Full-time	White Part-time	White Not Working
Under 30	24.4 (22)	6.3 (6)	13.6 (49)	18.2 (6)	14.8 (4)	10.5 (23)
31-45	35.6 (32)	27.1 (26)	18.1 (65)	54.5 (18)	33.3 (9)	12.7 (28)
46-65	38.9 (35)	51.0 (49)	30.0 (108)	24.2 (8)	33.3 (9)	34.5 (76)
Over 65	1.1 (1)	15.6 (15)	38.3 (138)	3.0 (1)	18.5 (5)	42.3 (93)
Total	16.5 (90)	17.6 (96)	65.9 (360)	11.8 (33)	9.6 (27)	78.6 (220)

N's in parentheses.

Generally, higher proportions of whites than blacks in each age group were employed part-time. The exception to this, however, was among blacks 46-65 years of age--51.0% of the part-time employed blacks were in this age group as opposed to 33.3% of the part-time employed whites in the same age group. Full-time employment, on the other hand, included higher percentages of blacks than whites in the 46-65 age group, as well as in the youngest age group (under 30).

The nonfarmers were questioned about the number of years worked on the same job, and 21.5% of the employed nonfarmers reported that they had been on the job for less than one year (Table 15). A surprising 31.7% reported having been on the job for more than ten years, indicating a fairly high level of job stability. Racial differences regarding job stability can be noted among those employed on the same job for more than ten years, with white respondents more heavily represented proportionately (41.7%) than the black respondents (26.3%).

Table 15

Number of Years on Same Job According to Race
(Nonagriculturally-Oriented Respondents Only)
(Percentages)

Number of Years	Black	White	Total
Less than 1	23.2 (44)	18.4 (19)	21.5 (63)
1-3	22.6 (43)	14.6 (15)	19.8 (58)
3-6	13.2 (25)	12.6 (13)	13.0 (38)
6-10	14.7 (28)	12.6 (13)	14.0 (41)
Over 10	26.3 (50)	41.7 (43)	31.7 (93)
Total	64.8 (190)	35.2 (103)	100.0 (293)

N's in parentheses.

An examination of information from 93.9% of the total sample concerning the number of jobs held in the last three years (Table 16) shows that 52.3% of the respondents held no jobs and 41.6% held one or two jobs. The higher rate of unemployment among whites is again noted, with 58.5% of the whites holding no jobs and 49.0% of the blacks similarly without work. Additionally, somewhat fewer whites reported holding the various numbers of jobs as categorized.

The usual working pattern for those employed was between eight to ten hours a day. Table 17 shows that the black group was slightly more heavily represented than the whites in the jobs calling for less than eight hours in a work day (37.1% black, 30.4% white). The white respondents, on the other hand, were slightly more heavily represented in those jobs requiring more than ten hours of work per day (8.7% white, 2.4% black).

Table 16

Number of Jobs Held in Last Three Years According to Race (Percentages)

Number of Jobs	Black	White	Total
0	49.0 (237)	58.5 (154)	52.3 (391)
1-2	44.0 (213)	37.3 (98)	41.6 (311)
3-4	5.4 (26)	2.7 (7)	4.4 (33)
More than 4	1.6 (8)	1.5 (4)	1.6 (12)
Total	64.8 (484)	35.2 (263)	100.0 (747)

N's in parentheses.

Table 17

Hours Worked Per Day According to Race (Percentages)

Hours Per Day	Black	White	Total
Less than 8	37.1 (63)	30.4 (14)	35.6 (77)
8-10	60.6 (103)	60.9 (28)	60.6 (131)
Over 10	2.4 (4)	8.7 (4)	3.7 (8)
Total	78.7 (170)	21.3 (46)	100.0 (216)

N's in parentheses.

Regarding the number of days worked per week, Table 18 shows that those who were employed reported working the normal five-day work week in slightly more than half of the responses (52.1%). The black respondents were slightly more represented in the categories calling for a work schedule of under five days, and the white group was slightly more represented in the categories of more than five work days per week.

Table 18

Days Worked Per Week According to Race
(Percentages)

Days Per Week	Blacks	Whites	Total
1	5.3 (9)	6.3 (3)	5.5 (12)
2	10.1 (17)	6.3 (3)	9.2 (20)
3	14.2 (24)	16.7 (8)	14.7 (32)
4	8.3 (14)	2.1 (1)	6.9 (15)
5	51.5 (87)	54.2 (26)	52.1 (113)
6	7.7 (13)	10.4 (5)	8.3 (18)
7	3.0 (5)	4.2 (2)	3.2 (7)
Total	77.9 (169)	22.1 (48)	100.0 (217)

N's in parentheses.

For those employed on hourly wages, over one-third (37.1%) of the sample reported earning between $1.50 and $2.00 per hour (Table 19). In general, the employed whites represented a smaller portion of the hourly wage earners than the configuration of the sample (66.4% blacks,

Table 19

Wages Per Hour According to Race
(Percentages)

Wages Per Hour	Black	White	Total
Less than $1.00	14.9 (23)	9.4 (3)	14.0 (26)
$1.00-1.50	31.2 (48)	15.6 (5)	28.5 (53)
$1.50-2.00	35.7 (55)	43.8 (14)	37.1 (69)
Over $2.00	18.2 (28)	31.3 (10)	20.4 (38)
Total	82.8 (154)	17.2 (32)	100.0 (186)

N's in parentheses.

33.5% whites) might predict, but they were more heavily represented than blacks in the higher wage level of over $2.00 per hour (31.3% as compared to 18.2%).

Of those reporting on the current employment of spouses (Table 20) approximately one-third (33.4%) indicated that their husbands or wives were employed full-time, 9.8% indicated part-time employment, and 56.8% reported their spouses were not working. Of the blacks,

Table 20

Current Employment Status of Spouse According to Race
(Percentages)

Employment Status of Spouse	Black	White	Total
Full-time	39.8 (104)	23.9 (42)	33.4 (146)
Part-time	10.7 (28)	8.5 (15)	9.8 (43)
Not Working	49.4 (129)	67.6 (119)	56.8 (248)
Total	59.7 (261)	40.3 (175)	100.0 (437)

N's in parentheses.

39.8% reported full-time employment of spouses as compared to 23.9% of the whites, indicating a slightly higher level of employment for spouses among the black population than among the white. Unemployment of spouses among whites is much higher than it is among blacks (67.6% vs. 49.4%).

Family Work

The sample was asked whether family work was related to farming or nonfarming, and the distribution of responses was as follows:

Farming (farm labor)	9.8%
Nonfarming	41.7%
Both	1.4%
Retired farming	8.8%
Retired nonfarming	25.2%
Retired both	3.0%
None	8.3%
No response	1.8%

As can be seen in the distribution, only a small percentage reported farming as the family work while slightly over two-thirds classified themselves as nonfarmers. There was no discernible pattern of differentiation along racial lines regarding family work except for a relatively higher level of farm laborers among the black respondents (13.2% as compared to 3.6% among the white population). It should be noted, however, that only about one-tenth of the total sample categorized themselves as farm laborers.

In terms of years spent in farming, the white farmers reported a somewhat longer period of time than the black farmers, but the proportions were about equal in the category of "over 20 years" (45.7% of the blacks and 44.4% of the whites).

One-half (50.6%) of the agriculturally-oriented group reported no job outside the farm (Table 21), and nearly that many (41.6%) reported occupational activity outside the farm in labor categories (i.e., occasional and regular). The white farmers were represented more heavily than the black farmers in the occasional labor category (36.4% to 15.2%), and the blacks were more heavily represented than the whites in the regular labor category (25.8% to 9.1%). Of the larger non-agriculturally-oriented portion of the sample, approximately two-thirds (66.3%) reported working as either occasional or regular laborers, and 16.6% reported working as housemaids.

Table 21

Occupation Outside Farm According to Race (Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents Only) (Percentages)

Occupation	Black	White	Total
Laborer (occasional)	15.2 (10)	36.4 (4)	18.2 (14)
Laborer (regular)	25.8 (17)	9.1 (1)	23.4 (18)
Housemaid	7.6 (5)	...	6.5 (5)
Other	1.5 (1)	...	1.3 (1)
None	50.0 (33)	54.5 (6)	50.6 (39)
Total	85.7 (66)	14.3 (11)	100.0 (77)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Table 22, which also displays the educational levels among the nonfarm group, indicates the concentration of employment as regular laborers in both racial groups. Slightly under half the nonfarming blacks (49.2%) and somewhat over half the nonfarming whites (57.3%) were in this regular laborer category. A combination of both laborer categories (i.e., regular and occasional) reveals the high proportion of laborers in both races, with whites more highly represented (95.2%) than blacks (68.8%). This difference could be explained by the high proportion of black housemaids (29.1%) as compared to whites (2.9%), reflecting the correspondingly higher percentage of black females in the sample.

Regarding the educational levels displayed in the same table, the occasional laborers in both races were represented fairly equally in all three educational groups. Both black and white regular laborers, however, were more highly represented in the middle and higher educational groups than in the lower one. The proportions of black housemaids in each educational level were similar to the percentages of black regular laborers in the same educational groups. With so few white housemaids reported,

Table 22

Occupation According to Educational Level (Last School Grade Completed) and Race (Nonagriculturally-Oriented Respondents Only) (Percentages)

	Black				White			
Grade Completed	Laborer (occasional)	Laborer (regular)	Vocational	Housemaid	Laborer (occasional)	Laborer (regular)	Vocational	Housemaid
0-4	37.8 (14)	11.8 (11)	...	14.5 (8)	30.8 (12)	15.3 (9)	50.0 (1)	33.3 (1)
5-8	27.0 (10)	45.2 (42)	50.0 (2)	47.3 (26)	43.6 (17)	44.1 (26)	...	66.7 (2)
9 and over	35.1 (13)	43.0 (40)	50.0 (2)	38.2 (21)	25.6 (10)	40.7 (24)	50.0 (1)	...
Total	19.6 (37)	49.2 (93)	2.1 (4)	29.1 (55)	37.9 (39)	57.3 (59)	1.9 (2)	2.9 (3)

N's in parentheses.

any comparison of their educational levels and those of the black housemaids would be spurious.

Within the agriculturally-oriented group, over two-thirds (67.1%) reported working for someone else, and slightly under one-fourth (22.4%) reported owning land (Table 23). The white farmers were proportionately more heavily represented (40.0%) in the land ownership category than the black farmers (19.7%), but almost one-tenth of the black farmers (9.1%) reported that they rented land while none of the white farmers reported land rental. Of those who worked for someone else, 90.2% were black, and they represented 69.7% of the black farmers.

Table 23

Land Ownership/Rental According to Race
(Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents Only)
(Percentages)

Land Ownership/Rental Status	Black	White	Total
Own	19.7 (13)	40.0 (4)	22.4 (17)
Rent	9.1 (6)	...	7.9 (6)
Both	1.5 (1)	10.0 (1)	2.6 (2)
Work for someone else	69.7 (46)	50.0 (5)	67.1 (51)
Total	86.8 (66)	13.2 (10)	100.0 (76)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Regarding the amount of land owned or rented (Table 24), 22.2% of the farm-oriented portion of the sample stated that they owned over twenty acres, and 55.6% said they owned less than five acres. Although the black respondents indicated owning or renting somewhat larger tracts of land than the whites, it must be noted that the total number of respondents was extremely small (N=9)--as was the entire agriculturally-oriented portion of the sample--precluding any generalizations regarding

Table 24

Number of Acres Owned/Rented According to Race
(Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents Only)*
(Percentages)

Number of Acres	Black	White	Total
Less than 5	50.0 (4)	100.0 (1)	55.6 (5)
5-10	12.5 (1)	...	11.1 (1)
10-20	12.5 (1)	...	11.1 (1)
Over 20	25.0 (2)	...	22.2 (2)
Total	88.9 (8)	11.1 (1)	100.0 (9)

N's in parentheses.

*Six black and four white farmers did not respond.

land ownership or rental.

Table 25 reflects the main crops grown by those engaged in agricultural pursuits as vegetables, a combination of grains and vegetables, and grains. The white farmers indicated a somewhat higher level of grain growing than the black respondents, and a slightly higher percentage of black farmers reported growing a combination of grains and vegetables. There was a high "no response" rate on this item which might be attributed to the fact that of the respondents engaged in farming pursuits 67.1% said they were working for others and, thus, could be engaged in farming but not "crop raising" as presented here.

Table 25

Main Crops Grown According to Race
(Agriculturally-Oriented Respondents Only)
(Percentages)

Crops	Black	White	Total
Grains	12.5 (4)	37.5 (3)	17.5 (7)
Tobacco	12.5 (4)	...	10.0 (4)
Vegetables	34.4 (11)	37.5 (3)	35.0 (14)
Fibers	3.1 (1)	...	2.5 (1)
Others	12.5 (4)	12.5 (1)	12.5 (5)
Grains and vegetables	21.9 (7)	12.5 (1)	20.0 (8)
Grains and tobacco	3.1 (1)	...	2.5 (1)
Total	80.0 (32)	20.0 (8)	100.0 (40)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Continuous Residence in Community

Of the total sample, 82.1% reported living in the same community for over ten years and a similarly high percentage (70.7% for over 20 years (Table 26). Some racial differences in community continuity were indicated by a slightly higher number of black respondents (73.5%) as compared with white respondents (65.1%) reporting that they had lived in the same community for over 20 years, but there were no discernible racial differences in the other categories specifying years lived in the community.

Table 26 also shows the relationship of age to community continuity, and, as would be expected, increasing age was associated with longer residence in the same community. Of all those who had lived in the same community for over 20 years, almost three-fourths (72.3%) were 46 years of age and older, and of those reporting ten

Table 26

Years Lived in Community According to Age Groups and Race
(Percentages)

Age Groups	Black				White			
	Less than 5 years	5-10 years	10-20 years	Over 20 years	Less than 5 years	5-10 years	10-20 years	Over 20 years
Under 30	15.6 (12)	11.7 (9)	14.3 (11)	58.4 (45)	25.0 (8)	18.8 (6)	15.6 (5)	40.6 (13)
31-45	12.1 (15)	12.9 (16)	16.9 (21)	58.1 (72)	18.2 (10)	12.7 (7)	10.9 (6)	58.2 (32)
46-65	5.2 (10)	4.2 (8)	8.3 (16)	82.3 (158)	7.6 (7)	7.6 (7)	13.0 (12)	71.7 (66)
Over 65	5.2 (8)	4.5 (7)	7.7 (12)	82.6 (128)	8.1 (8)	10.1 (10)	11.1 (11)	70.7 (70)
Total	8.2 (45)	7.3 (40)	10.9 (60)	73.5 (403)	11.9 (33)	10.8 (30)	12.2 (34)	65.1 (181)

N's in parentheses.

or more years of residence in the same community, over two-thirds (69.8%) were 46 years old or over. A comparison between the races reveals that the black and white groups were quite similar with respect to the relationship between increasing age and community continuity. However, the data indicate a slightly greater difference between the youngest and oldest white groups than between their black counterparts in terms of years lived in the community. Specifically, 40.6% of the youngest white group (under 30) as contrasted with 70.7% of the oldest whites (over 65) had lived in the same community for over 20 years. By comparison, 58.4% of the youngest blacks and 82.6% of the oldest blacks reported living in their communities for over 20 years.

Table 27 displays the distribution of data regarding years lived in the community in terms of the respondents' agricultural or nonagricultural orientation. The farm-oriented blacks reported a proportionately stronger pattern of community continuity (i.e., having lived in the same community for over 20 years) than the nonfarm-oriented blacks (84.2% as compared with 71.6%), but the nonfarming whites reported longer years in the community than their farming counterparts (64.4% compared to 55.9%).

Table 27

Number of Years Lived in Community According to Family Work and Race (Percentages)

Year in Community	Black		White	
	Farming	Non-farming	Farming	Non-farming
Less than 5	6.6 (5)	8.6 (30)	14.7 (5)	11.1 (23)
5-10	2.6 (2)	8.3 (29)	11.8 (4)	11.5 (24)
10-20	6.6 (5)	11.5 (40)	17.6 (6)	13.0 (27)
Over 20	84.2 (64)	71.6 (249)	55.9 (19)	64.4 (134)
Total	17.9 (76)	82.1 (348)	14.1 (34)	85.9 (208)

N's in parentheses.

General Health Conditions

Table 28 reveals that only 5% of the total sample perceived themselves to be in excellent health while slightly over one-third (34.1%) assessed their personal health as poor or very poor. Nearly two-thirds (60.8%) reported good or fair health. Generally, the white respondents considered themselves in slightly poorer health than the black respondents, with approximately ten percent more whites than blacks reporting poor or very poor personal health.

Taking age into account (Table 28), there was a predictable relationship between increased age and poorer health in both races. In the oldest age group, blacks reported slightly better health than whites--27.1% of the blacks over 65 years of age reported good or excellent health as compared to 20.2% of the whites, and 47.8% of the blacks as compared to 50.5% of the whites in this age group reported poor or very poor health. In the youngest age group, personal health was perceived as generally better by whites than by blacks, but in the 46-65 age group, blacks saw themselves as in a healthier condition than did whites. Perceptions of health were very similar in both racial groups between the ages of 30 and 45.

Family work and health conditions are displayed in Table 29, indicating that the nonfarming portion of the sample seemed to enjoy better health than the farming group. This tendency was somewhat more pronounced among the blacks than the whites.

Approximately two-thirds of the respondents reported that their children's health was good (66.9%), and there were no noticeable racial differences regarding children's health conditions. The health status of spouses was perceived about the same as for themselves by respondents, with a slightly higher level of excellent health reported for husbands and wives. Additionally, the black respondents reported a pattern of slightly better health for spouses than did whites. The white respondents perceived a markedly higher level than the blacks of poor (20.6% white, 13.4% black) and very poor (17.1% of whites, 9.5% of blacks) health of spouses.

Table 28

General Health Conditions According to Age Groups and Race (Percentages)

Health Conditions	Black					White				
	Under 30	31-45	46-65	Over 65	Total	Under 30	31-45	46-65	Over 65	Total
Excellent	14.3 (11)	4.0 (5)	4.6 (9)	1.3 (2)	4.9 (27)	21.2 (7)	3.6 (2)	3.2 (3)	3.0 (3)	5.3 (15)
Good	61.0 (47)	44.4 (55)	26.7 (52)	25.8 (40)	35.2 (194)	57.6 (19)	53.6 (30)	9.7 (9)	17.2 (17)	26.7 (75)
Fair	18.2 (14)	36.3 (45)	31.8 (62)	25.2 (39)	29.0 (160)	21.2 (7)	28.6 (16)	26.9 (25)	29.3 (29)	27.4 (77)
Poor	2.6 (2)	9.7 (12)	21.5 (42)	31.0 (48)	18.9 (104)	...	8.9 (5)	38.7 (36)	30.3 (30)	25.3 (71)
Very Poor	3.9 (3)	5.6 (7)	15.4 (30)	16.8 (26)	12.0 (66)	...	5.4 (3)	21.5 (20)	20.2 (20)	15.3 (43)
Total	14.0 (77)	22.5 (124)	35.4 (195)	28.1 (155)	100.0 (551)	11.7 (33)	19.9 (56)	33.1 (93)	35.2 (99)	100.0 (281)

N's in parentheses.

Table 29

General Health Conditions According to Family Work and Race (Percentages)

Health Conditions	Black			White		
	Farming	Non-farming	Total	Farming	Non-farming	Total
Excellent	2.6 (2)	5.7 (20)	5.2 (22)	2.9 (1)	6.2 (13)	5.7 (14)
Good	22.4 (17)	35.1 (123)	32.9 (140)	23.5 (8)	26.2 (55)	25.8 (63)
Fair	25.0 (19)	32.0 (112)	30.8 (131)	20.6 (7)	30.0 (63)	28.7 (70)
Poor	32.9 (25)	17.7 (62)	20.4 (87)	35.3 (12)	21.9 (46)	23.8 (58)
Very Poor	17.1 (13)	9.4 (33)	10.8 (46)	17.6 (6)	15.7 (33)	16.0 (39)
Total	17.8 (76)	82.2 (350)	100.0 (426)	13.9 (34)	86.1 (210)	100.0 (244)

N's in parentheses.

Car Ownership

Somewhat less than half of the total sample indicated that they owned cars, with the blacks less represented, generally, than whites as car owners. Table 30 shows that a greater proportion of the white females (51.0%) than of the black females (29.8%) owned cars. This same pattern was evidenced when comparing male car owners between races (64.2% white and 47.5% black). Among the total number of black car owners, however, the females were more highly represented than the males (60.6% to 39.4%), and among white car owners, the reverse was the case (54.7% male to 45.3% female).

Table 30

Car Ownership According to Sex and Race
(Percentages)

Car Ownership	Black			White		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Yes	47.5 (76)	29.8 (117)	35.0 (193)	64.2 (88)	51.0 (73)	57.5 (161)
No	52.5 (84)	70.2 (275)	65.0 (359)	35.8 (49)	49.0 (70)	42.5 (119)
Total	29.0 (160)	71.0 (392)	100.0 (552)	48.9 (137)	51.1 (143)	100.0 (280)

N's in parentheses.

Although proportionately fewer blacks owned cars, those who did reported having later models than the white car owners. In general, of all the car owners, 43.6% reported the age of their cars as between four and nine years, and an additional 33.7% said they had cars between nine and fourteen years old.

Table 31 reflects car ownership as related to employment, showing that more car owners were unemployed (62.9%) than employed (37.1%) and that the white respondents who owned cars were less likely to be employed than black car owners. Almost three-fourths (72.7%) of the white car owners were unemployed, while of the black car owners, slightly over half (54.7%) were unemployed. The proportion of car owners employed part-time was similar for both races, but there were considerably more black car owners employed full-time (30.2%) than full-time employed

Table 31

Car Ownership According to
Current Employment Status and Race
(Percentages)

Employment Status	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Full-time	30.2 (58)	9.3 (33)	16.8 (27)	5.1 (6)
Part-time	15.1 (29	19.3 (68)	10.5 (17)	8.5 (10)
Not working	54.7 (105)	71.4 (252)	72.7 (117)	86.4 (102)
Total	35.2 (192)	64.8 (353)	57.7 (161)	42.3 (118)

N's in parentheses.

whites (16.8%).

This relationship between employment status and car ownership could possibly account for the fact that among white car owners the percentage making a lower yearly family income, under $3,999, was greater than the percentage in the higher income level of $4,000 and over (58.6% to 41.4%). On the other hand, the greater proportion of black car owners in the higher income level (63.4%) as opposed to the lower level (36.6%) may be attributed to the higher employment rate among black car owners.

Living Facilities

Of the total respondents, almost two-thirds (63.9%) reported that they owned their homes. A little less than one-third (32.4%) rented their homes, and 3.7% indicated that they got their homes free from someone else. As Table 32 shows, the proportions of black and white homeowners were nearly equal. However, slightly more of the whites (36.5%) than blacks (30.3%) were renters, and slightly more blacks (5.1%) than whites (1.1%) received free housing from someone else. A comparison of the agriculturally-oriented and nonagriculturally-oriented portions of the sample reveals that, in general, more of the nonagriculturally-oriented respondents were homeowners (68.6% to 58.6%) and more of the agriculturally-

Table 32

Home Ownership/Rental/Free Provision
According to Race (Percentages)

Ownership/ Rental/ Free	Black	White	Total
Own	64.6 (358)	62.4 (174)	63.9 (532)
Rent	30.3 (168)	36.5 (102)	32.4 (270)
Free from another	5.1 (28)	1.1 (3)	3.7 (31)
Total	66.5 (554)	33.5 (279)	100.0 (833)

_N_'s in parentheses.

oriented respondents were renters (37.8% to 30.1%) or received housing at no cost (3.6% to 1.3%).

When asked, "Is your house big enough for your family?" almost three-fourths of the sample (74.1%) replied in the affirmative. A slightly higher proportion of the blacks (27.9%) as compared with whites (21.9%) felt that their houses were inadequate for their family needs. In addition, nearly two-thirds of the sample (66.1%) reported that their homes needed major repairs, and there were no discernible racial differences regarding this assessment.

Regarding household equipment and conveniences, substantial numbers of respondents reported that they possessed electricitiy, refrigerators, electric or gas stoves, and television sets in their homes. Radios were owned by approximately three-fourths of the respondents, while only slightly over one-third reported having telephone. Hot running water was found in almost half the homes, while cold running water was available in almost three-fourths of the residences. Freezers were owned by almost half the respondents. Indoor bathroom facilities were reported in almost two-thirds of the homes. These items and the percentages of respondents having them are listed below in descending order:

Equipment or Convenience	Percentage of Owners
Electricity	97.1
Refrigerator	95.3
Electric or Gas Stove	92.8
Television	89.2
Radio	76.0
Cold Running Water	70.1
Indoor Bathroom Facilities	60.6
Freezer	45.8
Hot Running Water	45.1
Telephone	38.7

A comparison of numbers of respondents within each race who possessed these items reveals that almost identical proportions of blacks and whites had electricity (97.1% black and 97.2% white), television (89.0% of the blacks and 89.7% of the whites), and telephones (38.7% of the blacks and 38.8% of the whites). Proportionately, slightly fewer blacks than whites had refrigerators (93.9% of the blacks and 98.2% of the whites) and electric or gas stoves (91.2% blacks, 96.1% whites). On the other hand, slightly fewer whites than blacks owned radios (73.0% of the whites and 77.5% of the blacks), and considerably fewer whites than blacks (37.7% as opposed to 49.8%) owned freezers. Significantly more of the whites than blacks possessed cold running water (91.1% of the whites and 59.5% of the blacks), indoor bathroom facilities (83.3% whites, 49.1% blacks), and hot running water (64.8% of the whites and 35.1% of the blacks).

CHAPTER III

BEHAVIORAL CHARACTERISTICS

The behavioral characteristics of the respondents are presented in this chapter through data which reflect organization memberships (clubs or lodges), voting behavior (registration and practice), and consumer behavior (as exhibited through reported reading habits, food buying patterns, food production activity, meal planning and nutrition, health and illness practice, use of health facilities, and buying habits and budgeting). Also, to characterize the behavior of this rural low income population, data are incorporated regarding the use of leisure time.

Organization Memberships

Community participation, as measured in terms of club or lodge membership activity, was low in this rural low income population. As reflected in Table 33, four-fifths (80.1%) of the total sample reported that they belonged to no clubs or lodges. However, racial patterns

Table 33

Club/Lodge Membership by Educational Level
(Last School Grade Completed) and Race
(Percentages)

Last Grade Completed	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
0-4	43.5 (67)	34.1 (133)	...	33.3 (89)
5-8	30.5 (47)	38.2 (149)	44.4 (4)	43.8 (117)
9 and over	26.0 (40)	27.7 (108)	55.6 (5)	22.8 (61)
Total	28.3 (154)	71.7 (390)	3.3 (9)	96.7 (267)

N's in parentheses.

regarding this aspect of community participation were noticeably different, with a clearly more active club/ lodge membership interest among the black respondents. Only 3.3% of the whites indicated that they belonged to clubs or lodges as opposed to over one-fourth (28.3%) of the black respondents.

Table 33 also shows the club/lodge membership patterns according to the school grades completed by respondents. Apparently, there was a weaker relationship between higher grades completed and membership among the black respondents than among the whites. Within the black portion of the sample, lower educational levels seemed to be associated with higher rates of membership in clubs or lodges. For the white respondents, the reverse appeared to be the case; however, it must be noted that the low representation of club or lodge members among whites makes generalizations hazardous.

With respect to age and club/lodge membership, Table 34 shows that in both racial groups there was, generally, an increasing membership pattern accompanying increasing age. This tendency was more pronounced among whites--of all white memberships reported, over two-thirds (66.7%) were in the oldest age group as compared to slightly

Table 34

Club/Lodge Membership by Age Groups and Race
(Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	7.1 (11)	16.5 (65)	22.2 (2)	11.6 (31)
31-45	15.6 (24)	25.2 (99)	...	20.1 (54)
46-65	39.0 (60)	33.8 (133)	11.1 (1)	34.3 (92)
Over 65	38.3 (59)	24.4 (96)	66.7 (6)	34.0 (91)
Total	28.2 (154)	71.8 (393)	3.2 (9)	96.8 (268)

N's in parentheses.

over one-third (38.3%) of the black memberships in the over 65 age group. Again, however, the low percentage of whites reporting memberships is a factor which must be taken into account, but it appears that younger blacks have an interest in this kind of participation and at a higher level, generally, than younger whites.

A comparison of the agricultural and nonagricultural groups (Table 35 reveals that a slightly higher percentage of farming-oriented respondents than nonfarmers in each racial group reported club or lodge memberships. Approximately one-third (32.5%) of the agricultural blacks as contrasted with about one-fourth (27.7%) of the nonagricultural blacks reported belonging to clubs or lodges. Within the white group, 6.1% of the farmers and 3.4% of the nonfarmers indicated memberships.

Table 35

Club/Lodge Membership According to
Family Work and Race
(Percentages)

Membership	Black		White	
	Farming	Nonfarming	Farming	Nonfarming
Yes	32.5 (25)	27.7 (96)	6.1 (2)	3.4 (7)
No	67.5 (52)	72.3 (251)	93.9 (31)	96.6 (201)
Total	18.2 (77)	81.8 (347)	13.7 (33)	86.3 (208)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Regarding the number of clubs or lodges in which membership was held, over two-thirds of the total sample (64.8%) reported only one, and an additional one-fourth (25.9%) reported two club/lodge memberships.

Voting Behavior

Voter registration and voting activity were used as indicators of political participation among the respondents. As displayed in Table 36, approximately three-fourths of the total sample (74.5%) were registered voters. Racial proportions were nearly equal, with slightly more whites registered to vote (77.9%) than blacks (72.7%).

Table 36

Voter Registration According to Age Groups and Race
(Percentages)

Age Groups	Black Yes	Black No	White Yes	White No
Under 30	62.3 (48)	37.7 (29)	42.4 (14)	57.6 (19)
31-45	77.2 (95)	22.8 (28)	75.0 (42)	25.0 (14)
46-65	73.1 (141)	26.9 (52)	84.9 (79)	15.1 (14)
Over 65	73.9 (113)	26.1 (40)	84.8 (84)	15.1 (15)
Total	72.7 (397)	27.3 (149)	77.9 (219)	22.1 (62)

N's in parentheses.

Table 36 also identifies registered voters by age groups and reflects an association between increased voter registration and older age in both racial groups, with this relationship somewhat stronger in the white group. Comparing racial age groups, almost two-thirds (62.3%) of the blacks under 30 were registered to vote, but in the same age group of whites somewhat less than half (42.4%) were registered voters. The 30-45 age groups were quite similar with regard to voter registration, but within each of the two oldest age groups (46-65 and over 65) whites outnumbered the blacks by about ten percent as registered voters.

Interestingly, the data do not indicate a relationship between the higher school grades completed and an increased level of voter registration (Table 37). Most registered voters in both races had completed from the fifth through the eighth grades, with the second highest proportion of registered voters in the lowest educational group (0 through 4 school grades completed). There were no discernible racial differences in this pattern.

Table 37

Voter Registration According to Educational Level
(Last School Grade Completed) and Race
(Percentages)

Last Grade Completed	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
0-4	32.5 (128)	47.0 (70)	34.7 (76)	23.0 (14)
5-8	38.8 (153)	29.5 (44)	40.2 (88)	59.0 (36)
9 and over	28.7 (113)	23.5 (35)	25.1 (55)	18.0 (11)
Total	72.6 (394)	27.4 (149)	78.2 (219)	21.8 (61)

N's in parentheses.

Participation in the last national, state, and local elections is displayed in Tables 38, 39, and 40. A remarkably high percentage of voting activity was reported by this rural low income population. Of the registered voters, 82.6% said that they voted in the last national election, 78.1% in the last state election, and 79.4% in the last local election. Age apparently was a factor in the voting habits of all respondents, with somewhat less voting activity in the younger age groups than in the older groups. A comparison between blacks and whites shows that the youngest blacks were more active among recent voters than the youngest whites and that the oldest whites were slightly more active than the oldest blacks. The voting activity was quite similar between racial groups in the middle age range.

Equal interest in the last local, state, and national elections was reflected by the consistent voting activity among all ages of black respondents. Within the white group, the same consistency was exhibited except for those under 30 who showed somewhat more interest in the last national election than in the local and state contests.

Table 38

Voting in Last National Election According to Age Group and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	11.4 (38)	15.6 (10)	6.3 (11)	7.0 (3)
31-45	23.2 (77)	28.1 (18)	22.2 (39)	7.0 (3)
46-65	37.3 (124)	25.0 (16)	36.4 (64)	34.9 (15)
Over 65	28.0 (93)	31.3 (20)	35.2 (62)	51.2 (22)
Total	83.8 (332)	16.2 (64)	80.4 (176)	19.6 (43)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Table 39

Voting in Last State Election According to Age Group and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	11.4 (36)	15.0 (12)	4.3 (7)	12.7 (7)
31-45	23.0 (73)	27.5 (22)	23.2 (38)	7.3 (4)
46-65	37.9 (120)	26.2 (21)	39.0 (64)	27.3 (15)
Over 65	27.8 (88)	31.3 (25)	33.5 (55)	52.7 (29)
Total	79.8 (317)	20.2 (80)	74.9 (164)	25.1 (55)

_N_'s in parentheses.

Table 40

Voting in Last Local Election According to Age Group and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	11.9 (38)	13.0 (10)	4.1 (7)	14.0 (7)
31-45	23.4 (75)	26.0 (20)	23.7 (40)	4.0 (2)
46-65	37.2 (119)	28.6 (22)	35.5 (60)	38.0 (19)
Over 65	27.5 (88)	32.5 (25)	36.7 (62)	44.0 (22)
Total	80.6 (320)	19.4 (77)	77.2 (169)	22.8 (50)

N's in parentheses.

Consumer Behavior

Reading Habits

In order to ascertain the reading habits of this sample, respondents were asked whether they read a newspaper or magazine. The reported consumption through these media was low, with 40.3% of the total sample stating that they read a newspaper and only 24.6% indicating that they read a magazine.

Regarding newspaper reading, Table 41 shows that among the black respondents the highest percentage of readers was in the two middle age group (64.4%), with almost equal proportions of the youngest and oldest groups represented in the newspaper reading population (16.9% of those under 30, and 18.7% of those over 65). On the other hand, in the white group a clear pattern of the relationship between increasing age and increased newspaper reading was manifest, with the oldest age group reporting themselves to be newspaper readers in larger numbers than any other age groups in the white population.

Comparing the races by age groups reveals that the younger and middle-aged blacks reported a higher level of

Table 41

Newspaper Reading According to Age Groups and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	16.9 (38)	11.9 (39)	8.1 (9)	14.1 (24)
31-45	32.0 (72)	16.2 (53)	23.4 (26)	17.6 (30)
46-65	32.4 (73)	37.0 (121)	27.0 (30)	37.1 (63)
Over 65	18.7 (42)	34.9 (114)	41.4 (46)	31.2 (53)
Total	40.8 (225)	59.2 (327)	39.5 (111)	60.5 (170)

_N_'s parentheses.

reading newspapers than their white counterparts. However, the oldest white group contained more newspaper readers than the corresponding black group.

With respect to magazine reading (Table 42,) as has been noted, only about one-fourth (24.6%) of the sample indicated this activity. Generally, the black magazine readers tended to be in the younger age groups, while the white magazine readers were in the older groups. This pattern could be attributed, at least in part, to the effects of the generally lower levels of education among the older black respondents and the increasingly higher levels of education among the younger blacks. As might be expected, a positive relationship was evident between increased magazine and/or newspaper reading and higher school grade level completion in both racial groups.

Table 42

Magazine Reading According to Age Groups and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	26.6 (37)	9.7 (40)	13.9 (9)	11.2 (24)
31-45	33.1 (46)	19.2 (79)	27.7 (18)	17.8 (38)
46-65	29.5 (41)	36.7 (151)	29.2 (19)	34.1 (73)
Over 65	10.8 (15)	34.3 (141)	29.2 (19)	36.9 (79)
Total	25.3 (139)	74.7 (411)	23.3 (65)	76.7 (214)

N's in parentheses.

Food Buying Patterns

Regarding the purchase of groceries (Table 43), cash was employed either solely (by 44.5% of the sample) or in combination with other methods of payment (i.e., food stamps and credit) by almost two-thirds of the respondents (62.7%). Food stamps were used to some extent by 45.8% of the respondents, either exclusively (by 30.1%), in combination with cash (by 11.1%), along with credit (by 2.2%), or cash and credit both (2.4%). Only 5.0% of the respondents used credit as a sole method of payment for groceries, and 14.3% used credit alone or in combination with other payment methods. Thus, as Table 43 shows, cash transactions clearly dominated the payment system for these rural low income people, and when considered along with food stamps accounted for 85.7% of the reported grocery payment methods. The patterns of payment were quite similar for both races, with the black portion of the sample slightly more involved in the use of food stamps than the whites.

Table 43

Method of Paying for Groceries According to Race (Percentages)

Method	Black	White	Total
Cash	43.3 (241)	46.9 (131)	44.5 (372)
Food stamps	32.6 (181)	25.1 (70)	30.1 (251)
Credit	4.7 (26)	5.7 (16)	5.0 (42)
Cash and food stamps	11.0 (61)	11.5 (32)	11.1 (93)
Cash and credit	3.6 (20)	6.8 (19)	4.7 (39)
Food stamps and credit	2.3 (13)	1.8 (5)	2.2 (18)
All	2.5 (14)	2.2 (6)	2.4 (20)
Total	66.6 (556)	33.4 (279)	100.0 (835)

N's in parentheses.

Those buying groceries on credit reported most often that the grocer was the main source of credit (96.2%), and of these, approximately two-thirds (64.1%) reported that they "always" or "sometimes" knew the amount of their bills. Slightly over one-third (35.9%) said they never knew how much their bills came to with the grocer. Additionally, of those purchasing on credit, 88.5% indicated that they did not know the interest rate being charged, and there were no discernible racial differences regarding the possession of this knowledge (88.1% blacks and 89.1% whites).

When asked if they thought the grocer gave them a fair price on their purchases, 90.7% of the sample reported that they did not feel they always received fair treatment. These respondents were almost equally divided between thinking that they "sometimes" (48.1%) and "never" (42.6%) got fair prices. Of the small percentage who felt they "always" got fair prices (9.3%), whites were slightly more highly represented than blacks.

Local grocery buying was reported by 86.8% of the sample, with 51.2% indicating that they "sometimes" bought groceries from the local grocery store and 35.6% saying that they "always" did so. Although racial differences were not notable, a slightly higher percentage of the whites (39.4%) as compared with the blacks (33.6%) reported that they "always" purchased groceries locally.

In terms of looking for sales before buying groceries, 86.3% of the sample indicated that they either "always" (56.0%) or "sometimes" (30.3%) sought sale prices. Racial proportions were quite similar, but the black respondents were slightly more disposed than the white respondents to "always" look for sales (57.6% as compared to 52.9%).

Food Production for Consumption

Several questions were asked to ascertain the degree to which respondents were involved in producing their own food for consumption. A relatively small portion of the sample engaged in any of these food producing activities, i.e., vegetable growing, raising animals for meat, keeping a cow or goat for milk, and raising chickens for eggs. The responses of "always" and "sometimes" were given as follows:

	Always	Sometimes
Vegetable growing	18.5%	32.3%
Raising animals for meat	7.1%	10.2%
Keeping a cow or goat for milk	1.8%	1.1%
Raising chickens for eggs	11.1%	12.1%

The greater activity in vegetable raising possibly could be due to the lower costs involved in that form of food production.

When comparing the agriculturally-oriented portion of the sample according to levels of yearly family income, in general, the lower income level respondents (under $3,999) tended to engage more than the higher income category respondents ($4,000 and over) in all these food production activities except raising chickens for eggs. On the other hand, the nonagriculturally-oriented respondents, when compared by income levels, appeared to be equally inclined to keep a cow or goat for milk and to raise chickens for eggs. The lower income group of nonfarmers (under $3,999) reported somewhat more vegetable growing than the higher income nonfarmers ($4,000 and over), and those with the higher level of income reported more activity in raising animals for meat than those with the lower level of income.

Overall, as might be expected, the farm-oriented respondents reported somewhat more food production activity than the nonfarm oriented portion of the sample.

Meal Planning and Nutrition

Significant differences ($p < .01$) were found between blacks and whites on five of the six items used to determine attitudes about meal planning and nutrition (see Table 44). Proportionately, more blacks than whites

Table 44

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Meal Planning and Nutrition by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
I usually eat three meals a day.	58.6 (324)	41.8 (117)	.0000*
For supper I usually have some meat, vegetables, bread, and some dairy product like milk, cheese, or ice cream.	66.8 (371)	47.0 (132)	.0000*
I know how to plan inexpensive balanced meals.	78.5 (426)	61.5 (168)	.0000*
I can't afford to feed my family the way I would like to.	75.9 (416)	79.5 (221)	.2841
I usually plan the week's menu before buying groceries.	50.8 (274)	39.6 (110)	.0029*
I know how to can and freeze food for storing.	84.5 (462)	75.4 (208)	.0021*

N's in parentheses. *$p < .01$

said that they ate three meals a day, ate a balanced meal for supper, knew how to plan inexpensive balanced meals, usually planned the week's menu before buying groceries, and knew how to can and freeze food for storing.

As might be expected, sex differences were revealed in this area, with greater proportions of females than males in both races agreeing with the two "knowledge" items--knowing how to plan inexpensive balanced meals and knowing how to can and freeze food for storing. In addition, more white females than males said they usually ate three meals a day. By age groups, both races were significantly different in regard to knowing how to can and freeze food for storing--in both cases, the youngest age groups (under 30) reported less knowledge, and, additionally, the youngest whites apparently were considerably less knowledgeable than the youngest blacks.

Among whites, marital status affected responses on two items: (1) proportionately, married whites felt less able than other groups to afford to feed their families the way they would like; and (2) married and widow-er whites planned the week's menu before buying groceries considerably more often than the unmarried and divorced or separated whites. For blacks, only one item revealed significantly different responses--the unmarried individuals were less knowledgeable than those in other groups about canning and freezing food for storage.

Educational level apparently affected responses about meal planning and nutrition in both races. Both blacks and whites varied in regard to knowing how to plan inexpensive balanced meals, with those having least education (0-4 school grades completed) in both races reporting the least knowledge in this area. Differences were noted among whites also with respect to eating three meals a day and having a nutritionally balanced meal at supper. More of those having completed 5-8 school grades than either those with less education or more education said they ate three meals a day and also that they usually had some meat, vegetables, bread, and some dairy product like milk, cheese, or ice cream for supper.

Job classification apparently did not significantly affect responses among blacks, but among whites, it made a difference on two items: (1) farmers and farm laborers were more apt to eat three meals a day than the nonfarmers or those with no classification; and (2) a greater proportion of those with no classification than any other group indicated that they knew how to can and freeze food for storing.

Significant differences in responses according to health conditions were found on two statements. The blacks in excellent health were more confident than other groups that they could feed their families the way they would like, and whites in excellent health were more inclined than other groups to eat three meals a day.

Health and Illness Practice

The final category of attitudes and values dealt with health and illness practice. Significant differences between blacks and whites were found on half of the 10 items in this area (see Table 45). Proportionately more blacks than whites said they usually took their children to the doctor for examinations even when they weren't sick, all their children had been immunized for school, their children were delivered by a midwife, and they sometimes went to a faith healer or spiritualist when they were sick. A greater percentage of white women than black women, however, reported that they visited a doctor or clinic regularly for checkups during pregnancy.

Males and females gave significantly different responses in only one instance. White males were much more inclined than their female counterparts to say that sometimes their health kept them from working.

Age was a factor in health and illness practice in both racial groups. Both races differed by age groups in regard to two items: (1) as age increased, health more often kept respondents from working; and (2) as age increased, more respondents reported that their children were delivered by a midwife. Blacks differed by ages on two additional items. Considerably fewer of the youngest individuals than of any other age group said that all their children had been immunized for school, but considerably more of the youngest black women reported visiting the doctor or clinic regularly during pregnancy. Whites differed by ages on one other item, the matter of having a regular doctor to go to when sick--the youngest individuals were least likely of all age groups to have a regular doctor.

By marital status, both blacks and whites gave diverse responses to the item regarding midwifery. In both races, greater proportions of widow-ers than other groups said a midwife delivered their children. Whites also differed about having a regular doctor, with less of the divorced or separated respondents than any other marital status group saying that they did. Additionally, among blacks, the widow-ers more often than others reported difficulty in getting to a health clinic or doctor when necessary and inability to work sometimes because of health.

Table 45

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Health and Illness Practice

Statements	Black	White	χ^2 Significance
When someone in my family gets sick we usually take some home remedy.	73.9 (405)	68.0 (189)	.0879
I have a regular doctor to go to when I am sick.	80.4 (443)	86.1 (242)	.0511
It's usually hard to get to the health clinic or doctor when I need to.	58.9 (323)	55.7 (152)	.4138
My health sometimes keeps me from working.	69.9 (329)	67.4 (157)	.5618
I usually take my children to the doctor for examinations even when they aren't sick.	33.6 (124)	15.1 (24)	.0000**
All my children have had their shots for school (immunization).	88.2 (299)	73.9 (88)	.0004**
Most of my children were delivered by a midwife.	71.1 (339)	39.4 (97)	.0000**
I sometimes go to a faith healer or spiritualist when I am sick.	9.7 (53)	2.5 (7)	.0003**
I sometimes go to the palm reader to get cured when I am sick.	2.5 (14)	.7 (2)	.1255
(For Women Respondents Only) I go to the doctor or clinic for regular checkups during pregnancy.	72.4 (220)	86.9 (106)	.0021**

N's in parentheses. *$p<.05$ **$p<.01$

On three of the statements both blacks and whites differed significantly according to educational level, with the least educated most likely to: (1) take some home remedy; (2) usually find it difficult to get to the health clinic or doctor when necessary; and (3) have children delivered by a midwife. Blacks also were dissimilar on three other items: (1) health was more likely to keep those with the least education from working; (2) taking children for doctor's examinations even when not sick was more often the practice of the two lower educational groups than of the highest group; and (3) women in the lowest educational group were least likely of all to visit the doctor or clinic regularly during pregnancy.

Both blacks and whites in various family job classifications differed about having most of their children delivered by a midwife, with farmers and farm laborers in both races most likely to have done so. Among blacks, three other differences in health and illness practice were found according to family job classification: (1) farm laborers were least likely to have a regular doctor; (2) the work of nonfarmers and farm laborers was least likely to be affected by their health; and (3) women in farming and farm laborer families were least likely to go to the doctor or clinic regularly during pregnancy.

In both races, employment status elicited differences about having a regular doctor--the unemployed were more likely than the full-time or part-time workers to have a regular physician to go to when they were sick. In addition, among blacks the unemployed were considerably more bothered than other groups by their health keeping them from working. These unemployed individuals also reported more often than other blacks that most of their children were delivered by a midwife.

Not surprisingly, health conditions of the respondents influenced their responses about health and illness practice. For both races, poorer health was associated with: (1) having a regular doctor; (2) difficulty in getting to the health clinic or doctor when needed; and (3) being unable to work. In addition, among black respondents poorer health was related to having children delivered by a midwife. Finally, black women in excellent health were much more likely than those in any other condition to go to the doctor or clinic for regular checkups during pregnancy.

Use of Health Facilities

Respondents were asked if their families used the health clinic or health department services provided by the county, and somewhat over half the sample (57.0%) reported that they did. Table 46 contains data about the utilization of county health services according to race and age and shows that a higher percentage of the black respondents (62.3%) than of the white respondents (46.6%) reported family use of these services. The table also reveals that in both racial groups the use of the county health services declined with increasing age. This tendency was somewhat more pronounced among the whites, with 84.8% of the youngest age group (under 30) using the services but only 24.5% of the oldest respondents (over 65) reporting use of the services. The corresponding proportions for their black counterparts were 87.0% (under 30) and 44.2% (over 65).

Satisfaction with the health facilities was indicated by over half (58.2%) of the respondents who reported that they used the facilities (57.0% of the sample), with little difference between the races regarding this assessment. However, it should be noted that although

Table 46

Family Use of County Health Clinic or Health Department Services According to Age Groups and Race (Percentages)

Age Groups	Black		White	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Under 30	87.0 (67)	13.0 (10)	84.8 (28)	15.2 (5)
31-45	80.0 (100)	20.0 (25)	71.4 (40)	28.6 (16)
46-65	55.4 (107)	44.6 (86)	41.3 (38)	58.7 (54)
Over 65	44.2 (69)	55.8 (87)	24.5 (24)	75.5 (74)
Total	62.3 (343)	37.7 (208)	46.6 (130)	53.4 (149)

N's in parentheses.

only 8.9% stated that they were not satisfied with the health facilities, the "no response" level of 32.9% to this query might suggest greater dissatisfaction than was openly expressed.

Buying Habits and Budgeting

Blacks and whites differed significantly in the area of buying habits and budgeting. Table 47 displays items used to characterize these attitudes and behaviors and the percentages of respondents in agreement. On three of the five items--shopping in the city given transportation and time, buying things even though unable to afford them, and spending most of one's money to pay off debts--proportions of blacks in agreement were significantly greater than whites.

Table 47

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Buying Habits and Budgeting by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
I have trouble making my money meet my expenses.	91.8 (507)	89.9 (249)	.4193
If I had transportation, and time, I would shop in the city.	86.6 (426)	77.5 (169)	.0036**
I sometimes buy some things even though I can't afford them.	67.5 (370)	57.0 (158)	.0039**
When I need money, I borrow it no matter what the interest rates.	38.5 (210)	33.8 (94)	.2182
I spend most of my money paying off my debts.	92.3 (500)	87.0 (240)	.0208*

N's in parentheses. *p<.05 **p<.01

Black males and females differed on one statement. Females were more likely than males to say that if they had transportation and time they would shop in the city. The white sexes also differed on one item--males indicated much more often than females that they borrowed money when they needed it no matter what the interest rates.

Age differences were found in both races. The middle age groups (30-45 and 46-65) of blacks were more interested in shopping in the city than either the youngest (under 30) or oldest (over 65) respondents, and the youngest blacks were least likely of all age groups to spend most of their money paying off their debts. Whites also differed in two instances: (1) the two younger groups (under 30 and 30-45) were more apt to buy things they couldn't afford than the two older groups (46-65 and over 65); and (2) the oldest group was least inclined of all age groups to borrow money regardless of interest rates.

Buying habits and budgeting varied according to marital status in both races. Among whites, the unmarried individuals were least likely of all groups to: (1) buy things they couldn't afford; and (2) spend most of their money paying off their debts. Among blacks, shopping in the city was more desired by divorced or separated individuals than any others.

Educational backgrounds differentiated attitudes of both blacks and whites about borrowing money regardless of interest rates--in both cases, those with the leaset education (0-4 school grades completed) were most apt to do so. Whites also differed by educational level in the matter of spending most of their money paying off their debts, with the most highly educated least likely of all groups to be so financially involved.

With respect to borrowing money, whites differed according to family job classification. Farmers and nonfarmers were less likely to borrow necessary money regardless of interest charges than either the farm laborers or the unclassified. Whites also gave diverse responses to the statement about sometimes buying things when they couldn't afford them according to employment status. The full-time workers apparently did this more often than either the unemployed or part-time employees.

Health conditions affected both blacks and whites with respect to having trouble making money meet expenses. The blacks in excellent health had less difficulty in this matter than any other group, but among whites, those in good health least considered this a problem. Additionally, blacks differed on the statement about buying things they couldn't afford, with respondents in fair health most likely to do so and those in poor or excellent health least apt to do so.

Leisure Time Activities

From a list of leisure time activities, the respondents were asked to identify the ones they might do in their spare time and the frequency of participation in each, i.e., "almost always," "sometimes," or "never." The 26 leisure time items are presented in Table 48, which also shows the order of preference of these activities by the total sample, by blacks, and by whites. The preferred order was computed by averaging the following assigned numbers:

1=almost always   2=sometimes   3=never

The lowest averages, therefore, represented the highest preferences, and the highest averages indicated the lowest preferences.

Overall, the rankings were quite similar when comparing the total sample, the black segment, and the white portion. Identical ranks for the 26 spare time pursuits were found on six of the activities--talking with family (#1), using the public library (#25), fishing or hunting (#12), hobbies like gardening or woodworking (#9), listening to the radio (#8), and reading a book or magazine (#13).

Table 48 also shows that five of the leisure time activities received somewhat different ranks by comparing black and white responses. That is, ranks were separated by four or more positions. These dissimilar preferences were card playing (whites #16, blacks #22), going to church and related organization meetings (blacks #2, whites #6), swimming (whites #19, blacks #26), going to parties (blacks #14, whites #22), and going to club meetings (blacks #15, whites #25). All other items were ranked very similarly--with only three or less positions separating them--as a result of the averaging computation.

Table 48

Order of Preference of Leisure Time Activities by Total Sample, by Blacks, and by Whites

Leisure Time Activities	Order of Preference		
	Total	Blacks	Whites
Talking with family.	1	1	1
Card playing.	20	22	16
Going to church/related organization meetings.	3	2	6
Dancing.	23	23	21
Swimming.	25	26	19
Knitting, sewing, crocheting, canning.	10	10	11
Reading a newspaper.	11	11	10
Doing odd jobs at home.	4	5	3
Picnicking.	15	16	15
Shopping.	5	4	5
Using the public library.	25	25	25
Fishing or hunting.	12	12	12
Going to parties.	16	14	22
Hobbies like gardening or woodworking.	9	9	9
Listening to the radio	8	8	8
Watching television.	6	6	4
Being with friends.	7	7	6
Going to club meetings.	18	15	26
Going to a sporting event.	20	20	19
Going to movies.	17	16	18
Sitting and thinking.	2	3	2
Doing some drinking.	14	16	14
Reading a book or magazine.	13	13	13
Raising animals.	19	19	17
Going to educational programs.	22	21	24
Playing sports.	24	24	23

It was found that almost half the spare time activities were popular enough that over half the total sample participated in them either "almost always" or "sometimes." Table 49 reflects these 12 most popular activities according to race and the response given. Clearly, the most frequent use of spare time by both blacks and whites was in talking with family, with 96.9% of the blacks and 94.6% of the whites reporting this activity either "almost always" or "sometimes."

Table 49

Top Twelve Leisure Time Activities (Preferred by Over Half the Total Sample "Almost Always" or "Sometimes") According to Race (Percentages)

Activity	Black			White		
	Almost Always	Sometimes	Never	Almost Always	Sometimes	Never
Talking with family.	67.9	29.0	3.1	49.8	44.8	5.3
Sitting and thinking.	48.4	36.8	14.9	51.3	39.4	9.3
Going to church and related organization meetings.	54.3	38.3	7.4	22.1	55.2	22.8
Doing odd jobs at home.	29.3	62.3	8.4	30.0	63.2	6.8
Shopping.	30.0	61.9	8.1	21.0	66.5	12.5
Watching television.	28.3	63.8	7.9	18.1	74.0	7.8
Being with friends.	21.3	67.1	11.6	7.8	82.9	9.3
Listening to radio.	20.5	66.5	12.9	9.3	65.8	24.9
Hobbies like gardening or woodworking.	16.5	53.3	30.2	10.3	49.8	39.9
Knitting, sewing, crocheting, canning.	10.8	56.6	32.5	9.3	47.3	43.4
Reading a newspaper.	11.1	46.1	42.7	10.4	48.2	41.4
Fishing or hunting.	9.0	47.3	43.7	7.1	45.2	47.7

Percentages do not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Distinctions between the races regarding intensity of participation can be drawn by noting the differences between proportions of blacks and whites responding that they "almost always" engaged in a certain activity in their spare time. For example, Table 49 shows that over two-thirds of the blacks (67.9%) said they "almost always" spent their leisure time talking with family, while slightly less than half the whites (49.8%) engaged in this activity as frequently. Similarly, 54.3% of the blacks attended church and related organization meetings "almost always" in their spare time, but only 22.1% of the whites did so. Blacks also indicated a somewhat greater intensity of activity than whites in shopping, watching television, being with friends, and listening to the radio.

The 14 leisure time activities which over half the total sample "never" participated in are shown in Table 50. The blacks least frequently engaged in swimming as a spare time pursuit, with 90.5% stating that they "never" did so. Whites reported that their spare time was least devoted to using the public library, with 95.3% reporting that this was "never" an activity.

Tables 49 and 50 reflect considerable differences between the races in the choices of several leisure time activities. Going to club meetings and going to parties are two of these--approximately one-fourth more of the blacks than the whites responded that they engaged in both these activities "almost always" or "sometimes." Similarly, over fifteen percent more of the blacks than of the whites indicated that in their spare time they "almost always" or "sometimes" went to educational programs (23.2% of the blacks and 7.5% of the whites), and church and related organization meetings (92.6% blacks, 77.3% whites).

Notably higher proportions of blacks than whites also said that they "almost always" or "sometimes" listened to the radio (87.0% blacks. 75.1% whites), engaged in knitting,sewing, crocheting, or canning (67.4% blacks, 56.6% whites), used the public library (15.3% blacks, 4.7% whites), and went to the movies (28.9% blacks, 18.8% whites) in their spare time. In addition, almost one-tenth more of the blacks as compared with whites (69.8% to 60.1%) pursued hobbies like gardening or woodworking in their leisure time.

Table 50

Fourteen Leisure Time Activities "Never" Participated in by Over Half the Total Sample According to Race (Percentages)

Activity	Black			White		
	Almost Always	Sometimes	Never	Almost Always	Sometimes	Never
Reading a book or magazine.	4.9	40.1	55.1	6.0	39.9	54.1
Doing some drinking.	5.4	28.1	66.4	6.4	29.9	63.7
Picnicking.	5.8	27.9	66.4	3.6	23.5	73.0
Going to parties.	7.2	30.7	62.1	1.1	12.1	86.8
Going to movies.	10.2	18.7	71.1	2.1	16.7	81.1
Going to club meetings.	10.6	21.6	67.8	.7	5.0	94.3
Raising animals.	7.6	18.8	73.6	3.9	13.9	82.1
Card playing.	5.2	14.1	80.7	1.8	24.6	73.7
Going to a sporting event.	4.1	21.4	74.5	1.4	15.7	82.9
Going to educational programs.	4.0	19.2	76.8	.7	6.8	92.5
Dancing.	3.1	13.9	83.1	1.1	13.2	85.8
Playing sports.	3.8	11.1	85.0	1.4	7.1	91.5
Swimming.	2.2	7.4	90.5	1.1	16.7	82.2
Using the public library.	2.5	12.8	84.7	1.8	2.9	95.3

Percentages do not always equal 100 due to rounding.

In general, the black segment of this low income population indicated a higher participation level in the leisure time activities surveyed in this study. Of the 26 activities presented to the respondents, 17 were "almost always" or "sometimes" engaged in by greater proportions of blacks than whites.

For the purposes of this report, only the general leisure time preferences and racial differences of respondents are incorporated. Although these preferences also varied by sex, age, marital status, educational level, employment status, family job classification, and general health conditions, those differences are not included in this document but will be analyzed and presented as a separate paper.

CHAPTER IV

CHARACTERISTIC ATTITUDES AND VALUES

In an effort to draw a profile of this sample's characteristic attitudes and values, a section of the questionnaire incorporated 32 "yes" or "no" items categorized into the following six areas: (1) attitudes toward others; (2) attitudes toward family and marriage; (3) attitudes toward religion; (4) attitudes toward education; (5) social values; and (6) religious values.

Each area will be discussed separately, concentrating on significant differences among respondents according to the variables of race, sex, age, marital status, educational level, family job classification, employment status, and general health conditions. The chi square test was used to establish significant differences, and unless otherwise noted, the significance level used was .05.

Attitudes Toward Others

Eight statements were used to elicit information about the attitudes toward others, and generally, for both races, these attitudes were positive. Significant differences ($\underline{p}<.01$) were found between blacks and whites in attitudes toward outsiders and in the amount of time spent with friends--white respondents appeared more reluctant than blacks to accept outsiders coming in and telling them what to do and were also less inclined to spend much of their spare time with friends. Table 51 shows the eight statements and the percentages of respondents agreeing with each.

Attitudes toward others were generally quite similar by sex, although a significantly greater proportion of black males than black females said they spent much of their spare time with friends. Comparisons by age revealed that whites did not differ significantly in their attitudes toward others but that blacks at different age levels did seem to vary significantly in certain attitudes. For example, the youngest blacks were more interested than other age groups in getting away from home and family whenever they could and also were stronger in their feelings of wanting to pay people back for doing them wrong. The amount of time spent with friends was

Table 51

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Attitudes Toward Others by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
I feel that I have a number of good friends in this community.	95.1 (521)	96.1 (267)	.6504
There are a number of people in the community that I like to avoid meeting.	36.6 (199)	30.5 (85)	.0915
I don't like outsiders coming in and telling me what to do or how to live my life.	65.8 (350)	76.1 (210)	.0034*
I get along pretty well with my neighbors.	97.1 (540)	96.1 (270)	.5521
I usually like people whether they are white or black.	96.9 (538)	95.7 (268)	.4772
I like to get away from home and family whenever I can.	71.2 (385)	64.8 (177)	.0778
Much of my spare time is spent with my friends.	49.2 (271)	33.3 (93)	.0000*
When people do me wrong, I feel it a matter of principle to pay them back if I can.	12.8 (71)	11.9 (33)	.7953

N's in parentheses. $^*p<.01$

another item on which blacks differed by age groups, with greater proportions of the two oldest groups (46-65 and 65 and over) than the two younger groups (30-45 and under 30) saying they spent much of their time with friends.

Marital status apparently did not affect the white respondents' attitudes toward others, but among blacks significant differences were noted on two items. First, although high proportions of blacks in all marital statuses felt they had a number of good friends in the community, the divorced or separated respondents reported this less often than any other group. Second, and possibly related to the differences found among age groups, significantly more of the unmarried respondents than any other marital status group said that they felt it a matter of principle to pay someone back who had done them wrong.

No significant differences were found for whites according to educational level; however, on one statement a significant difference was found in the responses of blacks. Those having completed the least school grades (0-4) apparently spent more of their spare time with friends than did those with more education.

Job classification was a differentiating factor in regard to some statements. Among whites, findings indicated that farm laborers most desired and nonfarmers least desired to get away from home and family whenever possible. Among blacks, three statements revealed significantly different responses according to job classification: (1) farm laborers, farmers, and nonfarmers were more inclined than those with no job classification to feel that they had a number of good friends in the community; (2) proportionately fewer farm laborers than any other group said they usually liked people whether they were black or white; and (3) more farm laborers than any other group were inclined to want to pay people back who had done them wrong.

Employment status of blacks made no significant differences in attitudes towards others, but among whites it was found that the unemployed were more eager than full-time or part-time workers to get away from home and family whenever they could.

Health conditions of respondents also appeared to affect certain attitudes toward others. For instance, the blacks in excellent health were considerably more favorable than those in poorer health toward outsiders coming in and telling them what to do or how to live their lives. but on the the other hand, the blacks in poorer health were more inclined than those in excellent health to spend much of their spare time with friends. In addition, proportions of respondents in both races who felt it a matter of principle to pay people back for doing them wrong varied significantly according to health conditions. Blacks reporting good health or very poor health were more highly represented than other categories, and whites in excellent health and very poor health were more highly represented.

Attitudes Toward Family and Marriage

Blacks and whites differed significantly in their responses to all but one of the seven statements on family and marriage attitudes (Table 52). The data indicated that whites were more satisfied with their marriages and would marry the same person if they had their lives to live over, had less regrets about having children,

Table 52

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Family and Marriage Attitudes by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
Overall, I'd say that I am satisfied with my marriage.	80.8 (308)	89.8 (194)	.0057**
Sometimes I regret having children.	16.6 (80)	5.9 (15)	.0001**
A person should not try to control the number of children he (she) has.	53.5 (286)	45.1 (120)	.0316*
It's all right if the wife is not always faithful to her husband.	5.2 (28)	1.8 (5)	.0309*
It's all right if the husband is not always faithful to his wife.	6.8 (36)	1.4 (4)	.0016**
It's entirely up to the wife to take care of and rear the children.	27.9 (152)	24.8 (68)	.3940
If I had my life to live over, I would marry the same person.	68.2 (321)	82.1 (202)	.0001**

N's in parentheses. $^*p<.05$ $^{**}p<.01$

were more supportive of some kind of birth control, and held stronger beliefs about marital fidelity. Within races, the opposite sexes generally gave similar responses to these items, but black males and females differed significantly on the two statements indicative of marital satisfaction--the males appeared more satisfied than the females with their marriages as well as more interested in marrying the same person again.

Age differences revealed dissimilarities in both racial groups, particularly among whites. For example, considerable diversity was found in white responses to the statement on birth control, with those over 65 much more apt to be against it than any other age group. Among both whites and blacks, respondents differed about marrying the same person again--in both races, younger respondents were less likely than older ones to choose the same spouse.

As might be anticipated, divorced or separated individuals in both racial groups were significantly less satisfied than other marital status groups with their marriages and also much less inclined to say they would marry the same person again.

Whites with different educational backgrounds varied significantly in their attitude toward birth control--the better educated were considerably more supportive of this practice than those less educated.

Family job classification affected responses of both races with respect to marrying the same person again. Greater proportions of the farmers and nonfarmers than either the unclassified or farm laborers indicated that, if they could live their lives over, they would choose the same spouse. In addition, black respondents gave dissimilar responses regarding marital satisfaction, with more of the farmers, nonfarmers, and farm laborers than the unclassified reporting satisfaction. Whites differed in their attitudes about the husband's fidelity--the unclassified were more inclined than any other group to say it was all right if the husband was not always faithful to his wife.

Only one item revealed employment status differences. Among whites, full-time workers were less eager than part-time workers or the unemployed to marry the same person again.

Attitudes Toward Religion

Religion and going to church were important in the lives of these respondents, and complete faith in God's existence was reported by almost all of them (96.6% blacks, 95.2% whites). Table 53 displays the three items used to ascertain attitudes toward religion and the proportions by race agreeing with the statements. A significant difference ($\underline{p}<.01$) was found between black and white responses to the statement, "Religion in my life is very important," with blacks attaching more importance to it than whites (96.4% to 87.6%).

This same statement revealed sex differences among blacks and age and marital status differences among whites. Black females viewed religion as important in their lives more often than black males, while younger whites considered it less important than older whites. Possibly related to this age difference was the finding that the divorced or separated and unmarried whites considered religion less important than the married or widow-er respondents.

Table 53

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Attitudes Toward Religion by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
Religion in my life is very important.	96.4 (535)	87.6 (241)	.0000*
I know that God really exists and I have no doubts about it.	96.6 (537)	95.2 (258)	.4392
Going to church is not important in my life.	17.4 (96)	21.6 (60)	.1762

N's in parentheses. *$p<.01$

Although the educational background of whites made no significant difference in attitudes toward religion, among blacks it apparently influenced responses about the importance of going to church. By comparison, church-going was least important to those having completed 5-8 school grades and most important to those having finished nine grades or more. Church attendance as an important part of one's life also varied according to the health conditions of black respondents--the importance of church-going increased as the quality of health decreased.

Attitudes Toward Education

Generally, attitudes toward education were positive for both races. This is supported by data in Table 54 showing that less than one-fifth of the whites and only one-sixth of the blacks felt they had all the education they needed. In addition, very high proportions of both groups indicated agreement with the other five statements reflecting favorable attitudes toward education. Racial differences were found on three of the statements, with blacks more inclined than whites to say that: (1) they would make their children stay in school; (2) they would like to learn a trade; and (3) they considered education most important as preparation to earn a living.

One sex difference was found--both black and white females felt more strongly than their male counterparts about making their children stay in school. Age differences on these items, however, were more numerous. In both races, for example, interest in learning a trade decreased with advancing age, this age variation more pronounced among whites than blacks. In addition, blacks at various

Table 54

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Attitudes Toward Education by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
I believe that I have all the education I need.	16.7 (92)	19.9 (55)	.2995
If I had to do it over again, I would have stayed in school longer.	91.3 (494)	89.7 (236)	.5509
I would make my children stay in school even if they didn't want to.	92.8 (439)	86.9 (206)	.0151*
If I would have stayed in school longer I would be earning a better wage and have a better job.	94.9 (485)	91.1 (225)	.0623
If I had the chance, I would like to learn a trade.	88.8 (422)	81.4 (180)	.0112*
The most important thing about education is preparing a person to earn a living.	98.2 (539)	95.3 (263)	.0313*

_N_'s in parentheses. *$p<.05$

ages gave dissimilar responses to two other statements about education: (1) the youngest group was least likely of all groups to agree that they would be earning a better wage and holding a better job if they had remained in school longer; and (2) the youngest group was least inclined to feel that the most important thing about education is preparing a person to earn a living.

The white respondents' attitudes toward education apparently were influenced by marital status. In regard to learning a trade, a pronounced difference was noted, with divorced or separated whites showing great interest, married and widow-er whites indicating considerable interest, but unmarried whites expressing very little interest. In addition, divorced or separated whites were also more inclined than other groups to feel that they would have better wages and better jobs if they had stayed in school longer.

Not surprisingly, certain attitudes toward education were related to the respondents' educational attainment. In both races, more of those in the lower educational groups than in the highest groups said they would stay in school longer if they had it to do over again and that they would have better wages and better jobs if they had remained in school longer. Additionally, whites differed on two other items: (1) more of those with 5-8 grades completed than either other educational group said they would make their children stay in school; and (2) more of those in the lower and middle categories than in the higher group viewed education's importance as preparation for earning a living.

Family job classification also revealed differences in attitudes toward education among both blacks and whites. In both races, those with no classification were most interested and the farmers least interested in learning a trade. Among whites, farmers were much more inclined than other groups to believe they had all the necessary education, and of all the black groups, farm laborers were least apt to say they would stay in school longer if they could do it over again and that they would have better wages and better jobs with more schooling.

The employment status of whites seemed to affect attitudes toward education. In comparison with full-time and part-time workers, a much greater proportion of the unemployed said they would stay in school longer if they could do it over again, but a smaller percentage stated that they would like to learn a trade. In addition, more of the full-time workers than either other group agreed that the most important thing about education is preparing a person to make a living.

Health conditions of black respondents apparently affected their attitude about remaining in school longer if they had to do it over again--those reporting good health were less likely than any other group to agree with this statement.

Social Values

Social values were measured by four statements, and Table 55 shows that blacks and whites gave significantly different responses on two of them. The first, "Working to help other people who have less than I makes me feel good," revealed less variance, with blacks proportionately more in agreement than whites. The second, however, "Belonging to social clubs like the Eastern Star, Masons, or church groups is important to me," showed a great difference in responses, with these activities considerably more important to blacks than whites.

Table 55

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Social Values by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
I like to meet new people and get to know them.	98.0 (541)	96.8 (270)	.3922
Working to help other people who have less than I makes me feel good.	96.8 (536)	93.0 (254)	.0246*
Belonging to social clubs like the Eastern Star, Masons, or church groups is important to me.	77.9 (399)	42.5 (90)	.0000**
I enjoy being with my friends and doing things with them.	96.4 (531)	95.5 (255)	.6849

N's in parentheses. *$p<.05$ **$p<.01$

No significant sex differences within races were found regarding social values, but white age groups varied in the importance attached to belonging to social clubs. This affiliation was much more important to the older groups than to the younger groups.

The statement, "I like to meet new people and get to know them," elicited different responses from whites according to marital status--the unmarried individuals were less interested than other groups in this social activity.

Although educational level of the respondents did not differentiate social values, for blacks the family job classification was a distinguishing factor in regard to enjoying the company of friends and doing things with them. The farm laborers and the nonfarmers were more positive in this social value than the farmers or those with no classification.

Two items elicited different responses from whites according to employment status: (1) belonging to social clubs was much more important to the unemployed whites than to the full-time or part-time workers; and (2) the enjoyment of being with friends and doing things with them was more important to full-time workers than to either the part-time workers or the unemployed.

Health conditions influenced the social values of both black and white respondents. For example, among whites, helping others who had less was valued least by those in excellent health, and the same pattern was found in regard to enjoying the company of friends and doing things with them. Additionally, although blacks generally attached more importance than whites to belonging to clubs, within the black segment of the sample it was less important to those in excellent health than to those in other conditions.

Religious Values

Unlike religious attitudes, religious values were not consistently high, particularly among whites. As can be seen in Table 56, the black respondents in every instance displayed significantly stronger ($p<.01$) religious values than whites.

Table 56

Percentages of Respondents Agreeing With Statements on Religious Values by Race

Statements	Black	White	Level of Significance
I usually live my religion in my daily life.	95.3 (523)	88.9 (240)	.0012*
I usually attend religious services regularly and faithfully.	81.7 (445)	49.5 (139)	.0000*
I usually try to get others to attend services and lead religious lives.	84.2 (459)	59.0 (160)	.0000*
I would like one of my children to become a preacher or enter some religious life.	84.2 (367)	70.7 (123)	.0002*

N's in parentheses. *$p<.01$

Differences were also found between males and females. For the blacks, females were somewhat more inclined than males to live their religion in their daily lives, and for the whites, females were considerably more likely than males to attend religious services regularly an faithfully and to try to get others to attend services and lead religious lives.

Religious values were significantly affected by age in both races, with differences among blacks on all four statements--in every case the youngest blacks were least likely and the oldest blacks most likely of all age groups to espouse the religious values. Among whites, the youngest respondents were least and the oldest two groups most inclined to live their religion in daily life.

Marital status also affected responses in both groups. Both black and white unmarried respondents were least likely and widow-ers most likely to try to get others to attend services and lead religious lives. In addition, blacks gave different responses to the statement about living one's religion in daily life--again, unmarried individuals were less likely and widow-ers more likely than other groups to hold this value. Whites also differed by marital status on the matter of attending religious services regularly and faithfully, with divorced or separated and unmarried persons least represented and widow-ers most represented.

The educational level of blacks was a differentiating factor on three of the religious value items. Data revealed that those with the least education (0-4 school grades completed) were more inclined than either of the other educational groups to: (1) attend religious services regularly; (2) try to get others to attend services and lead religious lives; and (3) want one of their children to become a preacher or enter some religious life. For blacks, the family job classification was also a diversifying variable--farm laborers were considerably less likely to attempt to get others to attend services and lead religious lives than farmers, nonfarmers, or those unclassified.

Employment status affected responses in both races to certain religious values. With respect to living one's religion in daily life and attending religious services regularly, the unemployed whites were more apt to be in agreement than the full-time and part-time workers. Among blacks, those most likely to try to get others to attend services and lead religious lives were the unemployed.

Although religious values of blacks apparently were not affected by health conditions, whites, on the other hand, differed in regard to living their religion in their daily lives. Those in excellent health were least likely of all groups to be in agreement with this statement.

Summary

Overall, this low income sample exhibited strongly positive attitudes toward others, toward education, and toward religion. Marriage and family were considered important in the lives of these respondents. Religious values were firm, especially among blacks.

Significant racial differences were found, particularly in the areas of religious values and family and marriage attitudes. Additional differences were identified on the variables of sex, age, marital status, educational level, family job classification, employment status, and general health condition.

CHAPTER V

SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The questionnaire was designed to include a section on socio-psychological characteristics of the sample. This part of the survey consisted of 51 statements requiring responses of "agree," "uncertain," or "disagree." These items were categorized into seven general areas: (1) social participation; (2) political participation; (3) community solidarity; (4) job motivation; (5) authoritarianism; (6) alienation; and (7) self-esteem.

Findings in the seven areas will be presented separately, with emphasis on significant differences by race, sex, age, marital status, educational level, family job classification, employment status, and general health conditions of respondents. Unless otherwise specified, differences reported will be those found significant at the .05 level of probability using the chi square test.

Social Participation

In general, blacks were found to be more socially participative than whites, and data revealed significant differences ($p<.01$) on four of the seven items. As Table 57 shows, blacks were more likely than whites to enjoy social gatherings just to be with people, desire membership in several clubs or lodges, consider it important to have friends and social life, and express interest in being the leader of a club or lodge. Although not significant, it was noted that the whites were somewhat less embarrassed than the blacks with people they did not know well.

In general, a comparison of the sexes indicated that, for both races, females were somewhat more attracted to social activities of an informal nature, while males were more interested in organized, formal activities. Significant differences were found in this respect. For instance, white males were considerably more interested than white females in belonging to several clubs or lodges, females of both races were less interested than males in assuming leadership of a club or lodge, and black females said much more often than black males that they had no time for club membership. Males of both races, however, preferred much more than females to eat meals quickly and not spend a lot of time at the table talking. Also, among whites, the males were considerably less embarrassed than females with people not well-known.

Table 57

Responses to Social Participation Statements by Race
(Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			X^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
I enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.	92.8 (514)	2.7 (15)	4.5 (25)	76.9 (216)	5.7 (16)	17.4 (49)	.0000*
I would like to belong to several clubs or lodges.	55.1 (305)	15.2 (84)	29.8 (165)	13.9 (39)	29.3 (82)	56.8 (159)	.0000*
It is very important to me to have friends and social life.	93.0 (515)	2.9 (16)	4.2 (23)	83.6 (234)	7.5 (21)	8.9 (25)	.0001*
I am embarrassed with people I do not know well.	37.7 (209)	7.4 (41)	54.9 (304)	30.2 (85)	7.8 (22)	61.9 (174)	.0991
I like to eat my meals quickly and not spend a lot of time at the table talking.	50.9 (281)	4.3 (24)	44.7 (247)	50.9 (143)	5.0 (14)	44.1 (124)	.9138
I would like to be the head or leader of a club or lodge.	33.7 (187)	15.3 (85)	51.0 (283)	10.0 (28)	22.1 (62)	68.0 (191)	.0000*
I don't have time to belong to any kind of club.	39.6 (219)	8.7 (48)	51.7 (286)	43.0 (120)	4.3 (12)	52.7 (147)	.0642

N's in parentheses. *p<.01

The only significant age difference was in regard to eating meals quickly and not lingering at the table for conversation--among blacks, the younger respondents were much less likely than the older ones to feel this way. Among whites, marital status affected responses on two items: (1) those divorced or separated were much more interested than any other group in belonging to several clubs or lodges; and (2) married respondents, more than others, considered it very important to have friends and social life. Educational differences were also reflected among whites, with the lowest educational group (0-4 school grades completed) having less time than other groups to belong to any kind of club and more eager than other groups to eat meals quickly and spend little time at the table talking.

The employment status of whites was a differentiating variable in social participation, particularly regarding club activities. The part-time workers were least interested of all groups in this affiliation--they were least likely to desire membership in several clubs or lodges, most likely to say they had no time for membership, and least likely to want to be leaders. In addition, part-time employed whites were least apt to enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.

Family job classification affected responses in both races in the matters of belonging to several clubs or lodges and wanting to assume leadership--among black, farm laborers were less interested than other groups, and the white farmers and nonfarmers were least interested. Significant differences were found on two other items. (1) farmers and farm laborers were more likely than other black groups to have no time for club membership; and (2) among whites, farm laborers were most inclined of all groups to eat meals quickly and not remain at the table for conversation.

Only one significant difference surfaced in relation to health conditions. White respondents in excellent health or very poor health least enjoyed social gatherings just to be with people.

Political Participation

For the most part, both blacks and whites felt that political involvement through voting was important, but they did not consider themselves amply knowledgeable about political condidates. Neither did they see themselves as political leaders nor with strong opinions about politics in general. Within this overall characterization, significant differences between the races were found on five of the seven political participation statements. Table 58 shows

Table 58

Responses to Political Participation Statements by Race (Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			χ^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
As long as a person votes every four years, he has done his duty as a good citizen.	63.3 (348)	7.5 (41)	29.3 (161)	56.6 (159)	9.3 (26)	34.2 (96)	.1696
I would be ashamed not to use my privilege of voting.	75.5 (415)	5.6 (31)	18.9 (104)	67.1 (188)	4.6 (13)	28.2 (79)	.0091**
Sometimes at elections I vote for men about whom I know very little.	69.9 (383)	16.8 (92)	13.3 (73)	70.8 (199)	7.1 (20)	22.1 (62)	.0000**
Voting is bothersome.	27.4 (151)	10.0 (55)	62.7 (346)	12.9 (36)	7.5 (21)	79.6 (223)	.0000**
I have strong political opinions.	57.7 (320)	17.8 (99)	24.5 (136)	61.9 (174)	10.3 (29)	27.8 (78)	.0163*
I am not the type to be a political leader.	72.3 (401)	12.8 (71)	15.0 (83)	88.9 (249)	2.9 (8)	8.2 (23)	.0000**
It makes me angry when I hear of someone who has been wrongly prevented from voting.	81.8 (454)	8.1 (45)	10.1 (56)	78.9 (221)	9.6 (27)	11.4 (32)	.6021

N's in parentheses. *$p<.05$ **$p<.01$

that whites were less ashamed of not voting, more confident of their knowledge about candidates, less likely to consider voting bothersome, somewhat stronger in their political opinions, and less likely to see themselves as political leaders.

Responses revealed that both black and white males held stronger political opinions than their female counterparts; this was a more distinct difference between the white sexes than the blacks. In addition, black males and females differed significantly on one other item--the females were more certain that they were not the type to be political leaders.

Age was a significant differentiating factor in political participation for both races on three items, with the youngest respondents least likely and the oldest ones most likely to: (1) think that voting every four years constituted one's duty as a good citizen; (2) be ashamed of not voting; and (3) vote for men about whom they knew very little. Whites also differed by age in considering voting bothersome, with the youngest group least likely to hold this viewpoint.

Blacks differed according to educational background in two instances. The most highly educated were less inclined than other groups to think that good citizenship consisted of voting every four years or to vote for people about whom they knew very little.

Family job classification significantly affected blacks in regard to political opinions. Farm laborers stated less often than those in other classifications that their opinions were strong. Among whites, findings revealed that nonfarm respondents were considerably less ashamed of not voting than any other group.

Only one statement elicited significant differences in responses according to health conditions. Among whites, those reporting poor health were the ones most likely to think that one's duty as a good citizen was accomplished by voting every four years.

Community Solidarity

On five of the six statements about community solidarity, significant race differences ($p<.01$) were found. As Table 59 shows, black respondents were more likely to believe that real friends were hard to find in the community and that a person who happened to be the wrong color was out of luck. On the other hand, blacks were more inclined to think positively about the community--that it had good leaders and that it tried hard to help its young people along. The primary difference between responses to the

Table 59

Responses to Community Solidarity Statements by Race (Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			X^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
Real friends are hard to find in this community.	45.8 (254)	6.3 (35)	47.9 (266)	37.0 (104)	2.8 (8)	60.1 (169)	.0015*
People won't work together to get things done for the community.	65.4 (363)	9.7 (54)	24.9 (138)	57.7 (162)	22.8 (64)	19.6 (55)	.0000*
This community has good leaders.	54.8 (304)	26.3 (146)	18.9 (105)	39.5 (111)	38.1 (107)	22.4 (63)	.0001*
The community tries hard to help its young people along.	55.7 (309)	21.4 (119)	22.9 (127)	41.6 (117)	37.0 (104)	21.4 (60)	.0000*
I feel very much that I belong here.	88.2 (487)	5.3 (29)	6.5 (36)	91.4 (256)	2.5 (7)	6.1 (17)	.4714
You are out of luck if you happen to be of the wrong color.	58.0 (321)	6.7 (37)	35.3 (195)	43.4 (122)	8.5 (24)	48.0 (135)	.0003*

_N_'s in parentheses. *$p < .01$

statement about working together to get things done for the community appeared to be that whites were considerably less certain than blacks whether people would cooperate or not.

Among blacks, sex differences were noted on two items, and in both cases, the males were more uncertain than the females. Females were more convinced that the community did not try hard to help its youth, and they were also more sure that they belonged in their community.

Age groups also varied in their responses about community solidarity. Among blacks, the youngest respondents were least likely to think that: (1) the community had good leaders; (2) the community tried hard to help its young people along; and (3) they belonged in their community. The youngest whites also disagreed most that the community tried hard to help its young people.

Perhaps as a reflection of age differences, the widow-ers were more inclined than any other black marital status group to think that the community had good leadership. Additionally, among blacks, those with the least schooling were most apt to believe that the community had good leaders, that the community tried hard to help its youth, and that they belonged there.

Employment status significantly affected the responses of both blacks and whites regarding community leadership. Among blacks, full-time workers were least likely to think the community had good leadership, while among whites, the part-time workers were least apt to think so. Whites also differed about whether the community tried hard to help its young people, with the unemployed most inclined to believe this was true. There was variation among blacks on the statement about being out of luck if one happens to be the wrong color--full-time workers were least likely to agree that this was the situation.

Significant differences were found in both races on the basis of family job classification. Both black and white farmers were more convinced than other groups that the community tried hard to help its young people along. In addition, among whites, farm laborers were overwhelmingly more certain that "You are out of luck if you happen to be of the wrong color."

Only one statement was significantly affected by health conditions. Blacks in very poor health felt more strongly than any other group that the community had good leadership.

Job Motivation

Although significant differences between blacks and whites were found on six of the ten statements in this area, the total sample exhibited a fairly high level of motivation to work and to do a good job. As the data in Table 60 show, whites were considerably more uncertain than blacks about whether they would prefer working for less money as opposed to being welfare recipients. Whites were also less sure than blacks about quitting unenjoyable work even with no alternative job; however, they were less apt to turn down a job considered beneath their dignity if their families depended on it. From the findings, the "work ethic" appeared to be stronger among whites than blacks. For example, whites were less likely to think they would choose idleness if they had enough money to support themselves and their families or to say that work was something done to earn some money. In addition, whites were less inclined to say they worked harder when the boss was around and goof off a little when the boss was gone.

A comparison of the sexes revealed differences on several items. Black females were more likely than black males to say they would never work if they had enough money to support themselves and their families. Black females were also more certain than the males that they would not take a job if it meant moving to some other place. For both races, females were more convinced than their male counterparts that a person should not quit unenjoyable work with no other job to go to.

Neither age groupings nor educational levels were particularly enlightening as differentiating factors in job motivation. The only age differences found were: (1) among blacks, younger age was related to greater interest in entering a job training program; and (2) among whites, younger age was associated with more willingness to move to another place in order to get a job. Regarding education, only one difference was noted--among whites, those with the least schooling were most likely to refuse a job they felt was beneath their dignity.

Marital status significantly affected responses of both blacks and whites. Among whites, divorced or separated individuals were least inclined to prefer working for a little less money over being welfare recipients. The same group of whites was also least apt to turn down a job considered beneath their dignity. Among blacks, it was not surprising to find that the unmarried individuals were most likely to take a job that involved moving to some other place. Differences were found in both races in regard to entering a job training program--widow-er blacks and unmarried whites were least interested in comparison with their respective groups.

Table 50

Responses to Job Motivation Statements (Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			X^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
If I had to get up early in the morning to go to work, I would do it.	95.4 (520)	1.8 (10)	2.8 (15)	96.4 (269)	1.8 (5)	1.8 (5)	.6969
I would rather earn a little less money and work than receive welfare and not work.	82.2 (452)	9.6 (53)	8.2 (45)	77.6 (218)	19.9 (56)	2.5 (7)	.0000**
If I had enough money to support myself and my family I would never work.	39.8 (219)	9.8 (54)	50.4 (277)	22.1 (62)	12.8 (36)	65.1 (183)	.0000**
I would never take a job that was beneath my dignity even if my family depended on it.	18.7 (103)	5.3 (29)	76.0 (418)	12.8 (36)	3.6 (10)	83.6 (235)	.0401*
When I am working I always do the best job I can.	97.1 (535)	1.1 (6)	1.8 (10)	96.8 (270)	.4 (1)	2.9 (8)	.3465
When my boss is around I work harder, and when he is gone I goof off a little.	16.6 (91)	1.5 (8)	81.9 (448)	7.5 (21)	2.9 (8)	89.6 (251)	.0007**

(Continued on next page)

Table 60 (Continued)

Statements	Black			White			X^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
I would enter a job training program if I knew there would be a job for me when I finished it.	72.9 (395)	12.2 (66)	14.9 (81)	66.7 (186)	16.5 (46)	16.8 (47)	.1395
I would take a job if it meant moving to some other place.	34.3 (187)	20.7 (113)	45.0 (245)	35.7 (100)	26.4 (74)	37.9 (106)	.0846
Work is something I do in order to earn some money.	85.2 (468)	2.9 (16)	11.8 (65)	77.1 (215)	5.0 (14)	17.9 (50)	.0130*
If a person doesn't enjoy his work he should quit even if he doesn't have another job to go to.	20.4 (113)	5.1 (28)	74.5 (413)	20.3 (57)	10.0 (28)	69.8 (196)	.0261*

_N_'s in parentheses. $^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$

Among whites, employment status affected responses to four job motivation statements. Compared with the full-time workers and the unemployed, the part-time workers appeared to have somewhat less at stake in regard to their jobs. They were: (1) less apt to do their best when working; (2) more inclined to work harder when the boss was around; (3) less likely to view work as something done in order to earn some money; and (4) more likely to think a person should quit unenjoyable work even with no prospects for another job. One difference was found among black respondents; the unemployed were most hesitant of all groups to take a job that involved moving to another place.

Family job classification was another variable which revealed significantly different responses. In both races, the farmers were more certain than any other group that they would rather earn a little less money and work than be welfare recipients and not work. Other differences found among blacks were: (1) farm laborers were most likely to say they would never work if they had enough money to support themselves and their families; (2) farm laborers were most apt to work harder when the boss was around; and (3) farm laborers and those unclassified were most likely to think a person should quit unenjoyable work even with no job to go to. Among whites, additional variations were: (1) farmers were considerably more reluctant than others to take a job they felt was beneath their dignity; and (2) farmers were much more disagreeable than others to taking a job that meant moving to some other place.

Job motivation was only minimally affected by respondents' health conditions. Among blacks, only one significant difference was found--the extremes of health conditions appeared to be associated with greater likelihood of working harder when the boss was around and goofing off when the boss was gone. Among whites, findings revealed that those in excellent health were considerably more likely than any others to take a job that involved moving to another location. In addition, whites in very poor or fair health were much more certain than others that they worked in order to earn some money.

Authoritarianism

As measured by the eight statements used in this survey, these respondents generally exhibited fairly strong authoritarian tendencies. This was somewhat more pronounced among the blacks than the whites, and on six of the items significant racial differences were noted (see Table 61). Blacks held stronger positive opinions about having complete faith in God and obeying His decisions without question, not doubting one's preacher, upholding age-old traditions, and making all decisions without asking one's spouse. Whites, on the other hand, were more inclined than blacks

Table 61

Responses to Authoritariansim Statements by Race
(Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			χ^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
The most important virtues children should learn are to obey and respect authority.	98.7 (550)	.5 (3)	.7 (4)	96.8 (272)	1.4 (4)	1.8 (5)	.1510
Everyone should have complete faith in God and obey his decisions without question.	97.5 (542)	1.4 (8)	1.1 (6)	92.5 (259)	5.7 (16)	1.8 (5)	.0015**
Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and fighting.	82.6 (459)	9.9 (55)	7.6 (42)	96.8 (272)	2.5 (7)	.7 (2)	.0000**
To get something done, I do what I think is best; listening to others only slows me down.	85.8 (477)	4.0 (22)	10.3 (57)	84.3 (237)	4.3 (12)	11.4 (32)	.8531
I would be the last person to doubt whatever my preacher tells me.	63.5 (352)	15.0 (83)	21.5 (119)	46.8 (131)	20.7 (58)	32.5 (91)	.0000**
I think I would not go against an age-old tradition.	65.5 (364)	12.1 (67)	22.5 (125)	57.0 (159)	17.9 (50)	25.1 (70)	.0267*
One should make all of the decisions without asking his or her spouse.	20.4 (112)	8.0 (44)	71.6 (393)	9.4 (26)	4.0 (11)	86.7 (241)	.0000**
All laws should be strictly enforced no matter what the result.	63.7 (351)	11.3 (62)	25.0 (138)	76.4 (214)	3.9 (11)	19.6 (55)	.0001**

_N_'s in parentheses. *_p_<.05 **_p_<.01

to think that because of human nature there will always be war and fighting and that all laws should be strictly enforced regardless of the results.

Although no significant sex differences were found in either race, age was an important factor, particularly among blacks. Six statements elicited significant variations in responses among black age groups, and in each case the youngest respondents were found to be less authoritarian than older individuals. They were less likely to say that: (1) the most important virtues children should learn are to obey and respect authority; (2) one should have complete faith in God and unquestioningly obey all His decisions; (3) because of human nature there will always be war and fighting; (4) one should not doubt what the preacher says; (5) they would not hesitate to go against age-old traditions; and (6) all laws should be strictly enforced no matter what the result. Whites also differed about following tradition--the youngest whites were more inclined than older ones to say they would break an age-old tradition.

Marital status significantly affected responses to two statements. Of all black groups, the unmarried individuals were least apt to believe that obeying and respecting authority are the most important virtues children should learn, and married respondents were least convinced that one should make all decisions without consulting his/her spouse.

Perhaps as a reflection of their younger age, the most highly educated blacks held less authoritarian views than those with less education. They were less likely to agree that: (1) everyone should have complete faith in and display total obedience to God; (2) they would not doubt their preacher; (3) they would not go against an age-old tradition; (4) one should make all the decisions without asking one's spouse; and (5) all laws should be strictly enforced regardless of the consequences. Among whites, those with more schooling were more willing than the less educated to go against age-old traditions.

Employment status was a critical variable among blacks in two instances. In comparison with other groups, the part-time workers believed less that there would always be war and fighting because of human nature, and the full-time workers were more disposed to break with age-old traditions. Differences were found among whites about making autonomous decisions to get something done--of all white groups, part-time workers were least inclined to always do what they thought best because listening to others would only slow them down.

On five of the eight items, significant differences ($p<.01$) emerged among blacks according to family job classification. Of all categories, farm laborers were found to be least agreeable to the following statements: (1) everyone should have complete faith in God and obey His decisions without question; (2) because of human nature there will always be war and fighting; and (3) all laws should be strictly enforced regardless of the results. On the other hand, farm laborers were most likely of all groups to make decisions without consulting their spouses. In addition to these variations, black farmers were found to be considerably more opposed to breaking an age-old tradition than any other group.

Health conditions had a significant effect on responses in only three instances. Whites in poorer health agreed more often than those in better health that they would not go against an age-old tradition and that everyone should have complete faith in God and unquestioningly obey His decisions. Among blacks, those reporting very poor health were more likely than others to think that all laws should be strictly enforced regardless of the results.

Alienation

Responses to the six statements used to measure alienation indicated that this sample had a tendency to feel somewhat isolated and powerless (see Table 62). However, on the four items which revealed significant differences ($p<.01$) between the races, blacks generally were less alienated than whites. Although black respondents more often had the feeling of being used by others, whites were less able to see a very bright future, less apt to think that real friends were as easy to find as ever, and more inclined to feel all alone in the world. In addition to the differences between blacks and whites, it should be noted that greater variations were found among blacks than among whites.

Black males and females differed in regard to being used by others, with females more apt to express this feeling. Age also affected black responses to the statements in this area. Older blacks exhibited considerably less alienation than other age groups in three instances: (1) they least often wondered about the real meaning of life; (2) they were more inclined to see the world as a basically friendly place; and (3) they were more likely to think that real friends were as easy to find as ever.

Marital status and educational background of blacks affected their responses to two items, "Sometimes I feel all alone in the world" and "Real friends are as easy to find as ever." Divorced or separated individuals were more certain than others that it was difficult to find friends, and along with widow-ers, felt more alone. In both instances, blacks with the most education least agreed with the statements.

Table 62

Responses to Alienation Statements by Race
(Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			X^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
Sometimes I have the feeling that other people are using me.	53.5 (296)	8.9 (49)	37.6 (208)	42.1 (118)	4.6 (13)	53.2 (149)	.0000*
The future looks very bright.	55.5 (308)	24.3 (135)	20.2 (112)	37.0 (104)	33.5 (94)	29.5 (83)	.0000*
I often wonder what the meaning of life really is.	76.2 (422)	7.2 (40)	16.6 (92)	78.1 (218)	5.4 (15)	16.5 (46)	.5915
Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.	66.9 (372)	5.8 (32)	27.3 (152)	72.6 (204)	.7 (2)	26.7 (75)	.0018*
The world we live in is basically a friendly place.	68.5 (380)	6.3 (35)	25.2 (140)	65.5 (184)	5.7 (16)	28.8 (81)	.5283
Real friends are as easy to find as ever.	50.3 (279)	5.6 (31)	44.1 (245)	38.8 (109)	3.6 (10)	57.7 (162)	.0010*

_N_'s in parentheses. *$p<.01$

Significantly different responses were found in the black segment according to employment status. In comparison with part-time workers and those unemployed, the full-time workers were least inclined to view the world as a friendly place or to think that real friends were as easy to find as ever. On the other hand, among whites, those with full-time employment were least likely of all groups to feel that sometimes other people used them.

Health conditions affected alienation responses in two instances: (1) among whites, better health was related to envisioning a very bright future; and (2) among blacks, those in very poor health were most certain that real friends were as easy to find as ever.

Self-Esteem

Table 63 shows that significant race differences emerged on five of the seven self-esteem statements. Blacks tended more than whites to consider themselves failures, to think they did not have much to be proud of, and to feel less satisfied with themselves. On the other hand, they were more likely than whites to believe they were able to do things as well as most other people and less inclined to feel useless at times.

Both blacks and whites differed by sex and age in regard to being able to do things as well as most other people. Females and younger respondents in both races expressed more confidence in their ability.

Marital status differences were also revealed. Among blacks, the widow-ers were more likely than any group to feel useless and unable to do things as well as others. Among whites, findings showed that married respondents least often saw themselves as failures.

The amount of schooling appeared to significantly affect feelings of self-esteem. The least educated blacks exhibited the greatest tendencies to feel useless at times and to sometimes think they were no good at all. Both blacks and whites with the least schooling were less inclined to consider themselves as capable as other people.

Employment status also affected responses to the statement regarding the ability to do things as well as most other people. Not surprisingly, the unemployed in both races were more clearly convinced that they were less able in comparison with others. In addition, whites gave significantly different responses about feeling useless at times--as might be expected, the unemployed were more likely than any other group to express this belief.

Differences were found among blacks with various

Table 63

Responses to Self-Esteem Statements by Race
(Percentages)

Statements	Black			White			X^2 Probability
	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	91.2 (506)	4.0 (22)	4.9 (27)	89.0 (250)	6.8 (19)	4.3 (12)	.2000
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	29.1 (162)	4.0 (22)	66.9 (372)	15.3 (43)	5.0 (14)	79.7 (224)	.0001*
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	62.8 (348)	8.1 (45)	29.1 (161)	53.2 (149)	12.1 (34)	34.6 (97)	.0190
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	23.8 (132)	3.6 (20)	72.6 (403)	14.6 (41)	5.7 (16)	79.6 (223)	.0049*
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	84.7 (470)	6.5 (36)	8.8 (49)	92.2 (259)	2.5 (7)	5.3 (15)	.0069*
I certainly feel useless at times.	63.4 (351)	6.9 (38)	29.8 (165)	71.9 (202)	2.5 (7)	25.6 (72)	.0075*
At times I think that I am no good at all.	40.2 (223)	2.9 (16)	56.9 (316)	39.6 (111)	1.4 (4)	58.9 (165)	.4096

N's in parentheses. *$p < .01$

family job classifications on two items. Farmers were least inclined to think they could do things as well as most other people, and farm laborers were more likely than any other group to be dissatisfied with themselves.

Health conditions apparently had an effect on self-esteem. In both races, for example, better health was associated with stronger feelings of being able to do things as well as others. Blacks in various states of health also differed with respect to feeling useless at times and sometimes thinking they were no good at all. In both cases, respondents enjoying excellent health were much less inclined to express these negative feelings.

Summary

Characteristically, these respondents were more politically than socially participative, and in both instances the blacks were more involved than the whites. Also, the sample exhibited a high level of motivation to work and to do a good job when working. Authoritarianism was quite strong among these individuals, and although feelings of self-esteem were fairly high, there was a tendency toward alienation. In addition, findings revealed that a sense of community solidarity was generally lacking.

On all seven socio-psychological characteristics, significant differences were found between blacks and whites. Variations were also revealed upon comparison of respondents by sex, age, marital status, educational level, family job classification, employment status, and general health condition.

CHAPTER VI

ASPIRATION LEVELS

This chapter includes data and findings regarding the respondents' aspiration levels. Since empirical studies rarely have been undertaken to investigate the aspirations of the poor and to identify changing trends in their levels of aspirations, this portion of the study was designed to assess the past, present, and future aspiration levels of this rural low income target population.

The self-anchoring scale developed by Cantril[1] and successfully used with the less educated was selected to measure aspiration levels of the respondents. In this technique, a picture of a ladder with ten rungs is shown to the respondent who is told that the top of the ladder represents the best of life and the bottom represents the worst of life. In this study, respondents were asked to point out where they stood at that particular time, five years before, and where they envisioned themselves five years in the future.

For the purposes of data analyses for this study, the original ten levels on the ladder were recoded into five levels, with level "1" representing the lowest level of aspiration and level "5" representing the highest. Mean aspirational scores formed the basis for comparing respondents grouped according to the variables of race, sex, educational level, income level, and family work. Data on the last four of these variables were analyzed both on the total sample and by controlling the race variable.

Race

The comparisons by race (Table 64) show that black and white respondents differed significantly ($p<.05$) in past, present, and future aspirations, with blacks holding significantly higher aspirations than whites for the present (2.65 to 2.34) and the future (3.47 to 2.56). Whites, on the other hand, reported a significantly higher past level of aspirations than blacks (2.69 to 2.21).

The future aspirations of black respondents were

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[1] Hadley Cantril, "A Study of Aspirations," *Scientific American*, 208 (February, 1963), pp. 41-45.

Table 64

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores According to Race

Time Dimension	Black			White			t value	t probability
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD		
Past	528	2.21	1.33	255	2.69	1.40	-4.60	.000*
Present	533	2.65	1.26	255	2.34	1.37	3.05	.002*
Future	480	3.47	1.54	222	2.56	1.64	6.95	.000*

*p<.05

much higher than the ones they held for either other time period. Additionally, while in no time period did the aspirations of whites exceed a middle range, blacks by comparison held fairly high hopes for a better life in the future.

Sex

Total Sample

The data in Table 65 reveal that male and female respondents were significantly different on past and future aspirations. Males held higher aspirations for the future than they did for the present (2.85 to 2.48), and the past (2.51) seemed just slightly better to them than the present.

Table 65

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores According to Sex

Time Dimension	Male			Female			t value	t probability
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD		
Past	276	2.51	1.41	508	2.28	1.34	2.19	.030*
Present	277	2.48	1.40	512	2.58	1.25	-1.01	.310
Future	253	2.85	1.69	450	3.37	1.57	-3.97	.000*

*p<.05

None of these levels of aspirations exceeded the middle range, however, and male aspirations in the study could not be considered high for any time period.

A comparison of the sexes shows that females reported a considerably lower aspiration level for the past (2.28 to 2.51) and a much higher one for the future (3.37 to 2.85) than the males. Differences between present aspiration levels of the sexes were not statistically significant, although the mean score of females (2.58) was slightly higher than that of the males (2.48).

Race Variable Controlled

When comparing the aspirations of white males and females (Table 66), the data indicate no statistically significant differences between the sexes for any time dimension. The same holds true for black males and females except for future aspirations where black females (3.58) had a significantly higher aspiration level than black males (3.19).

Table 66

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores According to Race and Sex

Sex	Past			Present			Future		
	Black	White	t	Black	White	t	Black	White	t
Male	2.36 (153)	2.70 (123)	.048*	2.66 (154)	2.26 (123)	.020*	3.19 (139)	2.44 (144)	.000*
Female	2.14 (375)	2.68 (132)	.000*	2.64 (379)	2.41 (132)	.075	3.58 (341)	2.69 (108)	.000*
t	.096	.922		.924	.387		.017*	.263	

N's in parentheses. *$p < .05$

Comparisons of black males to white males and black females to white females showed significant differences on almost every time dimension. Regarding the past, both white sexes had higher aspirations than their black counterparts (white males, 2.70; black males, 2.36; white females, 2.68; black females, 2.14), and the reverse was found for present aspirations, with both black males and females having higher levels than whites of the same sex. Differences in present aspirations between black and white males were significant, but differences between the female groups were not.

The gap between whites and blacks on future aspirations was significantly large, with black females holding the highest levels of any group (3.58), followed by black males (3.19), white females (2.69), and white males (2.44).

Age

Total Sample

For analytical purposes, the respondents were divided into the following four age groups: Group 1 (under 30); Group 2 (31-45); Group 3 (46-65); and Group 4 (over 65). F ratios obtained from a one-way analysis of variance are presented in Table 67, showing that age groups differed significantly ($p<.05$) in both past and future aspirations.

Table 67

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores According to Age

Age Groups		Past	Present	Future
Group 1 (under 30)				
	Mean	2.51 (109)	2.78 (109)	3.71 (99)
	SD	1.28	1.36	1.61
Group 2 (31-45)				
	Mean	2.09 (175)	2.52 (177)	3.42 (171)
	SD	1.60	1.54	1.67
Group 3 (46-65)				
	Mean	2.38 (271)	2.45 (271)	3.10 (238)
	SD	1.29	1.63	1.59
Group 4 (over 65)				
	Mean	2.56 (224)	2.50 (227)	2.81 (191)
	SD	1.35	1.32	1.53
F ratio		3.51	1.74	8.47
F probability		.020*	.160	.000*

N's in parentheses. *$p<.05$

Within the youngest age group (Group 1), the highest aspiration levels were for the present (2.78) and future (3.71), particularly the future, and the present aspiration level was higher than the past (2.51).

The two middle age groups (Groups 2 and 3) expressed relatively similar past aspirations and, as with the youngest group, both middle groups' aspirations for the present increased somewhat over the past.

The oldest group (Group 4) reported scores on past aspirations (2.56) higher than those of all three other age groups and slightly higher scores than Group 3 (46-65 age group) for the present (2.50 to 2.45), but this oldest group's aspirations for the future (2.81) were the lowest of any age group.

An examination of the overall relationships among age groups reveals that as far as the future is concerned, aspirations appeared to greatly decrease as age increased. Aspiration levels for the past and present were fairly close for all age groups, with no age group holding high aspirations for those time periods.

Race Variable Controlled

For the most part, age groups compared by race (Table 68) did not differ significantly in their aspirations except for the future. Most differences for the present and past time dimensions did not meet the established level of significance (.05). It should be noted, however, that much higher aspirations for the past were reported by the whites in the two middle age groups (2.44 and 2.84) than by the blacks in these age groups (1.93 and 2.17). Additionally, for the present time dimension, blacks at all ages reported higher aspirations than whites--significantly higher in the 46-65 age group (2.58 to 2.15).

Regarding future aspirations, differences occurred generally between all black and all white respondents as well as between blacks and whites in the same age group. As previously noted in terms of future aspirations, when age increased the relative aspiration level decreased. This was generally true for both blacks and whites, and, in addition, blacks in every age group held higher future aspirations than whites of the same age.

Table 68

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores
According to Race and Age

Time Dimensions	Group 1 (under 30)	Group 2 (31-45)	Group 3 (46-65)	Group 4 (over 65)	F
Past					
Black	2.39	1.93	2.17	2.40	.019*
White	2.81	2.44	2.84	2.66	.413
t	.175	.016*	.000*	.188	
Present					
Black	2.83	2.55	2.58	2.70	.385
White	2.68	2.44	2.15	2.33	.280
t	.601	.613	.012*	.053	
Future					
Black	3.93	3.60	3.44	3.12	.003*
White	3.07	3.00	2.32	2.26	.016*
t	.016*	.021*	.000*	.001*	

*$p < .05$

Educational Level

Total Sample

The obtained F ratios from a one-way analysis of variance (Table 69) show educational level (last school grade completed) groups to differ significantly on only one time dimension, the future. The group with the least formal education (0 to 4 grades completed) had lower aspirations than the other two groups (5-8, and 9 and over) on all three time dimensions. This lowest group's aspiration level was higher for the future (2.87) than for either the past (2.27) or the present (2.40), but none of these scores could be considered high.

With relatively more education, the second group in the study (5-8 grades completed) reported higher aspirations for the past, present, and future than the lowest group and higher aspirations for the past and present than the highest educational group. Their scores indicated that the present (2.64) seemed somewhat better than the past (2.46) and that the future (3.17) would be better than either of the other time dimensions.

Table 69

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores
According to Educational Level
(Last School Grade Completed)

Grades Completed	Past	Present	Future
0-4			
Mean	2.27 (267)	2.40 (267)	2.87 (239)
SD	1.31	1.39	1.47
5-8			
Mean	2.46 (304)	2.64 (308)	3.17 (272)
SD	1.48	1.65	1.59
9 and over			
Mean	2.37 (207)	2.56 (207)	3.59 (186)
SD	1.35	1.24	1.56
F ratio	1.38	2.53	10.39
F probability	.250	.080	.000*

N's in parentheses. *$p<.05$

Those in the sample with the most education (9 grades and over) had lower aspiration levels than the second group for the past (2.37 to 2.46) and present (2.56 to 2.64), but held much higher aspirations for the future (3.59 to 3.17). In contrast to the lowest educational group, the highest group held higher aspirations for all three time dimensions and, as has been noted, significantly higher ones for the future.

Thus, it appears that as educational level increased, so did aspiration levels for the future--from a relatively low score in the group with the least education (2.87) to a much higher score in the group with the most schooling (3.59). It should be added that none of the educational groups felt that the past offered a better life than the present.

Race Variable Controlled

Education seemed to exert the greatest influence on racial differences in terms of future aspirations, with only three significant differences noted between racial groups based on educational levels in the past and present time dimensions (Table 70).

Table 70

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores
According to Race and Educational Level
(Last School Grade Completed)

Time Dimensions	0-4 Grades	5-8 Grades	9 Grades and Over	F
Past				
Black	2.22	2.26	2.16	.788
White	2.39	2.80	2.90	.056
t	.335	.002*	.001*	
Present				
Black	2.58	2.73	2.63	.480
White	2.01	2.49	2.49	.032*
t	.001*	.128	.521	
Future				
Black	3.20	3.42	3.86	.001*
White	2.14	2.70	2.89	.021*
t	.000*	.000*	.000*	

*$p < .05$

With regard to past aspirations, significant differences between blacks and whites appeared in the two higher educational groups, with whites in both cases (2.80 and 2.90) reporting a higher aspirational level than blacks (2.26 and 2.16). Although whites in the lowest educational group held higher aspirations for the past than the blacks (2.39 to 2.22), this difference was not significant.

For the present time dimension, blacks reported higher aspirations than whites at every educational level. In the group with the least schooling (0-4 school grades completed), the difference between blacks and whites regarding present aspiration levels (2.58 to 2.01) was a significant one ($p<.05$).

With respect to future aspirations, significant differences were found between whites and blacks at every educational level, with blacks' aspirations much higher than those of whites. Also, significant differences were found for the future time dimension among the educational groups within each race.

Yearly Family Income

Total Sample

Two yearly family income groups were classified for this study on aspiration levels, as follows: (1) up to $2,999; and (2) $3,000 and above. T-tests showed significant differences existing between the two income level groups on both past and present aspirations (Table 71), with the lower income group holding higher aspirations than the higher group in both cases.

Table 71

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores
According to Yearly Family Income

Income Level	Past	Present	Future
Up to $2,999			
Mean	2.66 (481)	2.57 (485)	3.23 (423)
SD	1.36	1.29	1.67
$3,000 and above			
Mean	2.31 (271)	2.22 (272)	2.78 (250)
SD	1.36	1.28	1.68
t value	2.30	2.03	1.85
t probability	.020*	.040*	.070

N's in parentheses. *$p<.05$

Actually, the lower income group had greater aspirations than the higher group for all three time periods, but the difference was not significant at the established level (.05) for the future time dimension.

Within the lower group, aspirations for the past (2.66) were a little higher than the present (2.57), and aspirations for the future (3.23) were highest. In the higher income group, the past (2.31) appeared to have been slightly more satisfactory when compared to the present (2.22), and aspiration levels for the future (2.78) were somewhat higher than either of the other time dimensions.

Race Variable Controlled

It appears that differences in the annual family income levels as defined for this study did not heavily contribute to distinguishing between racial groups' aspirations on any of the three time dimensions. Table 72 shows that differences between the two income groups when controlled for race were not statistically significant except in two instances.

Table 72

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores According to Race and Yearly Family Income

Time Dimensions	Up to $2,999	$3,000 and above	t probability
Past			
Black	2.71	2.12	.005*
White	2.33	2.45	.814
t	.450	.073	
Present			
Black	2.70	2.33	.053
White	1.67	2.01	.471
t	.052	.059	
Future			
Black	3.33	3.11	.398
White	2.50	2.08	.516
t	2.240	.000*	

*$p < .05$

On past aspirations, blacks with the lower income had a significantly higher score than blacks with the higher income (2.71 to 2.12), and on future aspirations blacks in the higher income group were significantly higher than whites in that same income group (3.11 to 2.08).

Family Work

Total Sample

No mean score differences between agriculturally-oriented and nonagriculturally-oriented groups proved to be statistically significant (Table 73). However, on all three time dimensions, the farming group reported slightly higher aspirations than the nonfarming group. In both groups, aspirations were found to be highest for the future and lowest for the past.

Table 73

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores
According to Agricultural-Nonagricultural Orientation

Family Work		Past	Present	Future
Agricultural				
	Mean	2.51 (95)	2.74 (95)	3.21 (81)
	SD	1.41	1.27	1.69
Nonagricultural				
	Mean	2.45 (525)	2.56 (529)	3.12 (468)
	SD	1.38	1.34	1.64
t value		.36	1.27	.47
t probability		.720	.210	.640

N's in parentheses.

Race Variable Controlled

Comparisons within races between the agriculturally-oriented and nonagriculturally-oriented groups reveal no statistically significant differences for any of the three time dimensions (Table 74). Comparisons between races, however, show some significant differences in levels of aspirations.

Table 74

Differences in Aspiration Level Mean Scores According to Race and Agricultural/Nonagricultural Orientation

Time Dimensions	Agri-cultural	Nonagri-cultural	*t* probability
Past			
Black	2.51	2.23	1.350
White	2.50	2.82	.307
t	.983	.000*	
Present			
Black	2.84	2.62	1.910
White	2.46	2.44	.941
t	.222	.136	
Future			
Black	3.46	3.38	.707
White	2.45	2.64	.651
t	.032*	.000*	

*$p < .05$

For instance, comparing nonagriculturally-oriented blacks and whites shows whites with much higher levels for the past than blacks (2.82 to 2.23) and blacks with much higher aspirations than whites for the future (3.38 to 2.64). On the other hand, in the agriculturally-oriented group, blacks held generally higher aspirations than whites in all three time dimensions, with significantly higher aspirations for the future (3.46 to 2.45).

Although no statistically significant differences were found within races regarding farming or nonfarming orientation, it should be noted that, generally, nonfarming whites held somewhat higher aspirations than white farmers. On the other hand, black farmers held somewhat higher aspirations for all three time dimensions than black nonfarmers.

Summary and Conclusions

The findings revealed significant differences in the past, present, and future levels of aspirations of the black and white respondents, with blacks holding significantly higher present and future levels of aspirations than whites. The latter, however, had significantly higher past aspirations.

The variables of sex, age, educational level, yearly family income, and family work did not appear to significantly affect the levels of aspirations of respondents within a particular racial group, except in isolated cases. This finding may be contrary to other studies attempting to assess the influence of age, education, and income on aspiration levels. However, it must be noted that the sample structure of such studies more than likely would represent a cross section of the total population, rather than a particular segment of the universe as in this case, i.e., low income respondents. Moreover, in this study subclassifications for variables such as education (grade completion of 0-4, 5-8, and 9 and above) and annual family income (up to $2,999, and $3,000 and over) were very fine, and these arbitrary categorizations may have been an insignificant influencing factor for various levels of aspirations.

Since the composition of this sample heavily favored blacks (66.4% to 33.5% whites) as a result of proportionate sample selection procedures, the findings for individual variables (sex, age, educational level, annual family income, and family work) without controlling the race variable, though described in this chapter, were in the overall direction of the levels of aspirations for the black group.

Taking the foregoing into consideration, however, the following general observations can be made upon examination of the entire data:

1. The present and future levels of aspirations of the rural low income black heads of households are higher than those of their white counterparts. On the other hand, the white poor heads of households tend to think more fondly of the past. Based possibly on perceptions of the civil rights legislation of the sixties and the recent affirmative action plans of public and private organizations, the black poor seem to look to the future with much greater hope than do the white poor. Also, the present life situation, when compared with the past, is perceived as more satisfying by the blacks than by the whites. The white respondents' view of the past as more pleasant than the hard realities of the present may be attributed, at least in part, to greater satisfaction with the past because of segregation and

self-perceived superiority over the blacks. This interpretation is supported by the often-expressed statements by white poor that they have been more or less ignored while all government agencies are focusing their attention to uplift the blacks. This white segment of the low income population, however, appears a little more hopeful for a better future.

2. The females have slightly higher aspiration levels for the present and the future as compared to males within each racial group. It appears that males do not as dramatically change their aspirations for the future as do females. Perhaps females feel that current social changes will provide them with more opportunities in the future. It may be surmised that blacks, particularly black females, consider that what is ahead of them in life offers many more favorable opportunities than occurred in the past--a conclusion, as mentioned previously, possibly explained by social legislation of the sixties and affirmative action plans of public and private organizations.

3. With a few exceptions, as the age of the rural poor increases, past aspirations increase, and future and present aspirations decrease within each racial group. It might be concluded from this that young blacks, in particular, are looking forward to a better life in the future, while at the other extreme the aged whites have relatively low aspirations for a favorable change in the future.

4. Increased eudcation positively affects the future levels of aspirations for these rural low income black and white respondents, and this is particularly noticeable among the black segment. It might be surmised that those with better educational backgrounds perceive correspondingly better job opportunities--these opportunities, in turn, creating hope for a brighter future.

5. Both the black and white respondents with less than $3,000 annual income have higher levels of aspirations for the future than those with higher income ($3,000 and above). As noted, because of the fine distinctions made between income levels in this study, any findings in this area may be nebulous. However, it is possible that differences in aspirations could occur on the basis that those of lowest income in the sample may have experienced slightly more public assistance in the past and may, thus, aspire to more help in the future.

6. The agricultural or nonagricultural orientation of a rural poor family does not seem to influence the level of aspiration of its household head. It should be noted that, usually, these two categories of family

work are associated with two different lifestyles; however, the particular segment of the population included in this study, although separated into agriculturally- and nonagriculturally-oriented groups, were not dissimilar in general lifestyles.

7. Within each of the different variables, the black rural poor have higher levels of aspirations for the future than the whites. As has been discussed, possibly because of civil rights legislation and affirmative action plans, blacks appear to look to the future with greater aspirations. It may be concluded that this is a generally held view within the black poor population regardless of age, sex, annual family income level, educational level, or family work.

In general, one of the main implications of this study is that the family decision makers among the rural poor appear more hopeful of the future. If it is true that the level of aspiration affects the achievement motivation of an individual, then the rural poor are likely to be more receptive to programs designed to assist them in their life situations. Consequently, the policy makers in both public and private agencies and organizations may find it advantageous to take a second look at the potential benefits of such self-help programs as job training and job placement in the fight against poverty.